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THE
PRACTICE OF TENANCY,
AND
CUSTOMS OF COUNTIES.

THE
PRESENT STATE
OF
THE TENANCY OF LAND
IN
GREAT BRITAIN:
SHOWING
THE PRINCIPAL CUSTOMS AND PRACTICES
BETWEEN INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANTS,
AND
THE MOST USUAL METHOD UNDER WHICH LAND IS NOW HELD
IN THE SEVERAL COUNTIES.

COLLECTED FROM A SURVEY MADE IN THE YEARS 1827 AND 1828,
BY THE AUTHORS,

L. KENNEDY AND T. B. GRAINGER.

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1828

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TO HIS GRACE
THE DUKE OF WELLINGTON,

&c. &c. &c.

MY LORD DUKE,

THE deep and prominent interest taken by your Grace, and the attention your Grace has given to the Science of Agriculture, in addition to high station and great eminence of character, point out your Grace as the personage to whom this work may be most appropriately addressed.

Fully aware that the discerning mind of the Duke of Wellington would reject with scorn the language of adulation, we purposely refrain from indulging in those terms of praise which have been so often and so justly echoed in Britain, and re-echoed through Europe.

Believing that your Grace agrees, in the main, with the view which we have taken of the agriculture of the empire, and flattering ourselves that

the details to be found in the following pages will be deemed highly useful to the landed proprietors, as well as to numerous classes of individuals, we, without further comment, consign this work to your Grace's critical judgment, and to the tribunal of the public; convinced that whatever opinion may be entertained of our efforts, they are, at least, well intended.

We have the honour to be,

with the greatest respect,

MY LORD DUKE,

Your Grace's most obedient

and very humble Servants,

THE AUTHORS.

Under the Patronage

OF

THE DUKE OF SOMERSET.

THE DUKE OF NORTHUMBERLAND.

THE DUKE OF NEWCASTLE.

THE DUKE OF MARLBOROUGH.

THE MARQUESS OF CONYNGHAM.

THE MARQUESS OF NORTHAMPTON.

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LORD GAGE.

LORD STRATHALLEN.

GILBERT HEATHCOTE, Esq., M.P.

&c. &c. &c.

ADVERTISEMENT.

THE Authors having been compelled, from the nature of the subject, to make use of many technical terms, peculiar to the counties in the notices of which they are introduced, are afraid that many inaccuracies of style may, in consequence, have escaped them. They trust, however, that where these defects occur, they will not be too severely criticised by an enlightened public; who must, of course, be aware of the difficulties which the Authors had to contend with, and of the necessity of giving the details in the plainest and most simple language.

ERRATA.

Page 12, line 12, *for* "farmer," read "former."

" 68, " 12, *for* "goods," read "food."

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soil, yet, no long period elapsed before agriculture in its turn was completely triumphant—the Economists going to the other extreme, and concentrating in it, as it were, all the elements of the prosperity of a state. It has since found its level ; but the system established in that country of the almost infinite divisibility of the land, in consequence of the abolition of the law of primogeniture, and the restrictions upon wills, is the worst that could possibly be devised with reference to the proper cultivation of the soil. With regard to other parts of Europe, the latest information is to be derived from the recent Report of Mr. Jacob, which, with the exception of the Netherlands, presents them in a point of view rather to be avoided as examples, than in any respect imitated. It is, however, undoubtedly true, that almost everywhere upon the European continent, much greater encouragement has been given to agriculture during several years past, than for a long antecedent period. It is no part of the object of the authors to enter into any discussion or detail upon this part of the subject, which may be considered as entirely foreign to their purpose ; but, there is one point which it is impossible not to notice ; namely, the superior advantages which so evidently arise in this country from the security of property, and the freedom enjoyed in its disposal and management. It may be said, that

though they are sometimes found wanting in what is most essential, namely, the Customs of the respective counties; which are frequently, like the customs of London amongst merchants, recognised in courts of justice; and thus, so far as relates to the districts where they respectively prevail, have all the force and effect of the law of the land.

To these points they intend again to advert, as well as to others, in the course of this Introduction.

ON AGRICULTURE, ITS PROGRESS, AND THE SMALL PROPORTION OF THE COUNTRY YET WELL CULTIVATED.

On the importance of agriculture, whether considered with reference to political economy, to domestic trade, to foreign commerce, or to the general interests and welfare of a nation, and the subsistence and support of its people, it is scarcely necessary to dilate. All states, in all ages, in which civilization to any extent has prevailed, have acknowledged its essential utility; and though it may be true, that in France the excessive refinement that triumphed over common sense, during great part of the reign of Louis XIV., led to a distaste among the higher classes of all rural employments and amusements, and to a sort of fashion unfavourable to the due cultivation of the

soil, yet, no long period elapsed before agriculture in its turn was completely triumphant—the Economists going to the other extreme, and concentrating in it, as it were, all the elements of the prosperity of a state. It has since found its level ; but the system established in that country of the almost infinite divisibility of the land, in consequence of the abolition of the law of primogeniture, and the restrictions upon wills, is the worst that could possibly be devised with reference to the proper cultivation of the soil. With regard to other parts of Europe, the latest information is to be derived from the recent Report of Mr. Jacob, which, with the exception of the Netherlands, presents them in a point of view rather to be avoided as examples than in any respect imitated. It is, however, undoubtedly true, that almost everywhere upon the European continent, much greater encouragement has been given to agriculture during several years past, than for a long antecedent period. It is no part of the object of this author to enter into any discussion or detail of the subject, which may be congenial to their purpose ; but, as it is impossible not to perceive the superior advantages which so many countries derive from the security of property, it may be said, that

they are of comparatively little avail without capital, and this observation may be partly true; but, as it is well known, that there is in Great Britain abundance of capital, always ready to be applied to the cultivation of the soil, so it is equally apparent to all who observe the differences existing in various countries, that wherever there is freedom and security, no difficulty exists with regard to capital, provided it can be laid out to any advantage.

Wherever the feudal system still remains, or where, from the constitution of the government, as in some parts of Europe, there is no permanent security for the subject; or where, from other causes—as, unfortunately, in some parts of Ireland—he, especially if a stranger, is continually in danger; there, agriculture will not flourish, because the capitalist will be repelled, instead of being attracted; nor can it by any possibility be carried on upon any beneficial system, where the miserable occupier of a patch of ground has no other resource than to draw from it a wretched subsistence for himself and his family. Agriculture is a science—a noble science—which requires to be deeply studied, and industriously practised; but experience has repeatedly and clearly proved, in this country, that capital laid out in the application to the soil of a well planned system, has been amply repaid by an increased and superior

produce. There is in this respect no want of encouragement for the practical speculator, (if we may be allowed the use of such a term); the only obstacles to improvement are the slow, in many places the very slow removal of ancient prejudices from the minds of the Farmers, and the want of conviction on the part of some Landlords, that their land can only be effectually improved, and thus rendered of greater value to themselves, by giving to their Tenants an interest for a certain term in the soil, sufficient to enable the latter to obtain an adequate return for money laid out in prosecuting a beneficial system of cultivation.

Whether agriculture should form a part of the education of noblemen and gentlemen, as suggested by a writer some years ago, may admit of a doubt, there being ample opportunities for them to become acquainted with its principles and details; whilst the chaining them to its study in early youth might, perhaps, tend to create a subsequent distaste to it. Some there are who eminently deserve the thanks of their country, whose exertions have given a direction to agricultural science and speculation, highly beneficial to the community. It is not possible, in the nature of things, that all who possess land should have a taste for superintending or improving its cultivation; nor could it, in many instances, be beneficial to the state, that their attention should be

absorbed in this one pursuit, to the exclusion of others, in which, probably, their talents may be employed to the highest advantage. Still, however, all may, to a greater or less extent, investigate the subject; and those who have not time to do more, may, by making themselves masters of a few facts, and acting upon the knowledge thus acquired, frequently increase the value of the property they possess. .

To enlighten the minds of some farmers, especially those who seldom or never read, is rather a difficult task; but that a spirit of improvement has of late years prevailed to a great extent, cannot be denied; the progress made in several counties speaks for itself; the produce has been largely augmented, and much bettered in quality, whilst the value of the land itself is considerably enhanced. It is curious, however, to observe the slow rate at which information upon this subject travels from one county to another, at least so as to produce any visible effect, and this too even in England, notwithstanding the aid of all the vast machinery of the public press. People in London are frequently apt to imagine that what they know is very soon communicated to the whole country; and those who only travel from one great town to another, may, perhaps, incline to the same opinion; but let them go into districts more remote and less frequented, and they will soon find how egre-

giously they have been deceived. The march of intellect has been, of late years, often spoken of, but it, perhaps, ought rather to be called a flight, than a march, it being to be observed in certain places, sometimes at a considerable distance from each other, whilst in many districts there is no trace of its visit, nor any indication of its progress. Even in the metropolis itself, it is no inconsiderable amusement to some who are acquainted with various parts of it, to observe the great dissimilarity there is in this march, in different quarters of it, there being a most curious diversity in the intermediate degrees between "the first sources of information," and the lowest gradation in the scale.

To those Farmers in England who do not read, or to Welshmen who are ignorant of the English language, it may certainly be difficult to convey information. Still, however, it is a matter for surprise, that the knowledge of facts connected with, and essential to, the improvement and prosperity of Agriculture, should have made such slow progress. It is, in truth, not a little humiliating to philosophers, and to literati, to observe how little effect is produced by their works, or those of their predecessors; whilst legislators frequently find themselves most unexpectedly embarrassed, and prevented from carrying their intentions into effect, by a host of prejudices which they had fondly flattered them-

selves were entirely dissipated. And although there is more information generally diffused in Great Britain, than in any other country on the globe, excepting, perhaps, the United States of America, yet the term "generally," which is so commonly used, must be taken with many shades of qualification. The facts detailed in this work abundantly prove, that what is well known and systematically practised in one county, is frequently unknown or utterly disregarded in the adjacent districts; and that what is, to every unprejudiced observer, evidently erroneous and injurious to the land, is, in some quarters, persisted in most pertinaciously, though a journey of not many miles would open to the view the beneficial effects of a contrary practice. It will be seen, also, how far local prejudices, and, in some instances, local customs, operate to prevent improvement; but in all cases there is this to be said, that the Landholders possess the means of compelling the adoption of a different system.

It certainly may not be expedient, in all cases, for a Landlord to enforce a change altogether at variance with the customs of the district in which his estate is situated; but experience has proved that the difficulty is not so great as may, perhaps, be imagined, and that by gradual steps a total alteration may, in a few years, be effected, producing the highest advantages both to the Landlord

and to the tenant, as well as to the community. Unless, however, a tenant is allowed to hold the land he occupies for a term of years sufficient to enable him to remunerate himself for the outlay of capital in improvement, it is in vain to expect any change for the better. It is true that in some quarters, though holding nominally at will, the Tenant considers himself as secure as if he had a lease, but it is obvious that this security cannot extend beyond the lives of the parties; that in the case of the estate descending to a minor, his guardians or trustees must act according to law, without any reference to such an understanding; and that, in case of the decease of the tenant, his executors or administrators may be ousted, and much loss sustained by his family. The only efficient and available security for a tenant who lays out money in improvement is, of course, a lease for a sufficient length of term to enable him to realize an adequate profit, which every trader or manufacturer naturally expects in return for the employment of his capital.

There is a remarkable variance in this respect in different counties, as may be seen on reference to the work itself; but from the facts there stated, it becomes obvious, that excepting in those cases where an understanding exists of the nature just alluded to, it is only where the tenant has a security in the shape of a lease for the possession of his

farm for a certain term, that he is induced to make any improvements; and in many places the land is much impoverished through his drawing from it all he can, in order to make the most of it whilst it continues in his possession. Such a practice is, of course, ultimately highly injurious to the landlord, as it necessarily deteriorates the value of his estate; and it serves as one among other instances to show, that the only system alike beneficial to the landlord and tenant, is that under which the latter has an interest in improving the land, which, of course, increases its value. It has been said, during the repeated discussions of the Corn question, that it is impossible to adjust, for any term of years, a satisfactory money rent; but this objection is very easily obviated, by making the amount of rent in cash depend upon the market price of the produce of the farm, a system which can be carried into effect without difficulty, so as to be equally satisfactory both to landlord and tenant.

SYSTEM AND PRACTICE OF TENANCY, AND THE
NATURE OF THE DIFFERENT HOLDINGS.

The present work comprising the system and practice of tenancy in Great Britain, it may, perhaps, be expected that some definition should be, in the first instance, given, of what is meant by tenancy. Tenants either hold at will, by agree-

ment from year to year, or for a certain number of years, or under leases for whatever terms are agreed upon, but which seldom exceed twenty-one years: leases of farms for a longer period, or for lives, are very seldom granted in Great Britain. The covenants and stipulations in these leases and agreements are, of course, as various in the different counties, as the opinions that prevail in them respecting the best systems of agriculture, or the indifference that exists upon the subject. But it will be seen, and this forms by far the most important part of this branch of the subject, that these covenants and stipulations form, in fact, but a small portion of those restrictions or rules by which the conduct of parties is regulated. It is true that landlord and tenant are each of them bound by what they themselves stipulate and agree upon under their hands and seals; but then comes the unwritten law, the customs of the place by which the tenant in possession, but who is about to quit, and the new tenant who is about to enter, or (to prevent an unnecessary multiplication of words) the outgoing and the incoming tenant, are considered to be equally bound; and which frequently vary so essentially in different districts, as to render the calculations requisite for taking a farm in one, totally inapplicable in another.

It therefore became a desideratum to collect these local customs, and, by presenting them in one

point of view, or publishing them in one brief volume, to give information which cannot but be of the highest interest to all those individuals who propose to themselves to invest their capital in the purchase of land, or to employ it in farming to the best advantage, as they will thus be enabled at once to decide where, with either of these views, their objects can be best attained. It is at the same time evident that to landholders, in whatever quarter of Great Britain, as well as to farmers, a knowledge of these various customs must be of the greatest utility ; the farmer will be enabled to discover the causes by which their property is, or may be, increased or deteriorated in value, and the latter may select that system of occupancy which is best calculated for their own advantage ; whilst both may unite in endeavouring to remove those obstacles that have hitherto prevented the soil from being properly cultivated, or the land from being brought into that improved state of which it is capable, and which, in many instances, would so much increase its value.

This work, indeed, will be found most essential to all those who have any intention of taking farms out of their own immediate neighbourhoods, as without it they cannot know the nature of the speculation they are about to enter upon, at least without much trouble, delay, and expense, the whole of which may be saved by merely consulting

a few of its pages with reference to the county or district to which they propose to remove. Many cases have occurred where farmers going from one district to another, though not many miles distant, have been totally at a loss in consequence of the difference of local customs. These customs, relating as they do to the period of entering upon a farm; to the mode of possession for a certain time, whether wholly or in part; to what the outgoer is bound to leave, and the incomer to take; to what either the former or the latter have an option of doing, or not; to the rules established respecting crops, the outgoer being, in some instances, entitled to an offgoing crop, and in others not, and the incomer being sometimes allowed to go upon the land to plough it previous to his time of entry, and in other cases precluded from doing so, or depending for permission to do it upon the mere caprice of the outgoer, and being not unfrequently prevented from having any corn for eighteen months after his entering upon his farm: these, and many other customs, branching out into a variety of minute ramifications, are of the utmost importance to farmers who are seeking to employ their money to the best advantage.

It will be seen that these customs, varying as they do in the respective counties, and sometimes in different districts of the same county, are, in the places in which they prevail, considered as

obligatory upon outgoing and incoming tenants, and are acted upon accordingly. Many learned works have been written upon the law of landlord and tenant, but without containing one word respecting these local customs which, in some places, may be almost said to be superior to the law of the land, and for this simple reason, that their authors, however versed in other knowledge, were totally ignorant of the various customs prevailing in different districts, by which the conduct of individuals, residing, perhaps, at a distance of only twenty or thirty miles from each other, is frequently so oppositely regulated. And thus it has happened, that some of these learned gentlemen, when professionally employed in the country, have found their own works to be of no authority, or rather that their authority was set aside by the *lex loci*, the custom of the place, respecting which they had previously no information.

In this point of view, therefore, the work will also be found eminently useful, as, by merely turning over a few pages, professional gentlemen, as well as others, may at once find all the information they want respecting the customs or practice prevailing in any particular district. Neither in saying this, nor in any other observations, is it the intention of the authors to praise themselves; they only mean to point out the importance and utility of such a publication, which, so far as they

know, has not hitherto been attempted. Some of the facts may, no doubt, be found scattered in various voluminous works, but the information afforded in this work has, they believe now for the first time, been embodied in one volume; and for all the facts that are stated, they can and do pledge themselves that they were entirely collected upon the spots to which they respectively relate, either from actual observation or local information, none being given which were not derived from one or other of those sources. They, therefore, merely claim the credit of laying before the public an original work; which, whatever merit may be considered due to it, undoubtedly contains facts of great importance both in a national point of view, and to a large number of individuals; those facts being merely narrated in a simple style, and arranged in a manner which was thought the most convenient for general reference.

It is no part of the object of the authors to discuss agricultural questions; but there are some points arising out of the facts stated in the following pages which so force themselves upon the attention, that it is impossible to avoid noticing them. There is nothing more deserving of remark than the superior advantages enjoyed by tenants entering upon farms in Scotland, and some parts of the north of England, over those in a similar situation in the south, or in some of the midland

districts. In the former, he has nothing to pay for on taking possession, but is enabled to lay out his capital to the best advantage in stocking his farm, and afterwards conducting it upon an improved system; whilst, in the latter, he is, in the first instance, frequently crippled as to pecuniary resources, by being obliged to pay a heavy valuation on entering, and does not, in consequence, afterwards possess the means of making those improvements, from which he might derive the greatest advantage. Thus, in the former, a farm may be stocked, and conducted more profitably to the occupier, with little more than half the money that is required in the latter. In many counties in England, a farmer entering upon two hundred acres of land, with a capital of 1500*l.*, has to pay, according to the custom of the place, 1200*l.* upon a valuation, and for stock, leaving him only 300*l.* to carry on the business; whilst in the north, and in Scotland, a farmer may enter upon the same quantity of land, having no valuation to pay, with only 800*l.*, and, after stocking his farm to the best advantage, have the same sum left that the other has, but with much better opportunities of employing it profitably. It is these advantages enjoyed by a tenant, combined with his having an interest in the soil for a certain number of years, and the superior management of the land, that render estates in Scotland so much more valuable than in England,

the rents in the former being nearly double what they are in the latter. It is true that in Scotland the tenants pay no taxes or rates ; but, after deducting for this, and considering the measure, the rents would then be higher by five shillings an acre than they are in England ; and under the Scots system a farmer would derive a greater advantage from paying an additional five shillings per acre, than he could by entering upon a farm subject to a valuation, even at a deduction of five shillings per acre,—thus making a difference per acre of no less than ten shillings.

The superiority, indeed, of the free-entering system over the practice of valuation is so evident, that little is required to prove it except the mere statement of the facts. It is quite clear that a farmer, on entering upon a farm, stands in the most need of having the full and unincumbered use of his capital, in order, in the first place, that he may be enabled to stock his land at the lowest rate for ready money ; and in the next, that he may have a sufficient sum left to meet contingent demands, until he can obtain returns, and to allow of his taking advantage of the turns of the market. Wherever he is obliged, by the custom of the country, to take various articles, and to pay for workmanship and labour at a valuation, he frequently, indeed most commonly, (not being immediately in want,) pays more for them than they are

worth, or a higher price than he could obtain them for in the markets, or in the usual course of business, for ready money, and at a greater rate for labour and workmanship than that at which he himself could have them performed; whilst, in every case of this description, the greater part of his capital is locked up at a time when he most wants the use of it: he commences business, in consequence, in a state of embarrassment; and, unless some unusually fortunate circumstances occur, he cannot recover himself; nor has he the means of making those improvements from which he might derive advantageous returns, because he does not possess capital sufficient to enable him to make the requisite outlay, and to wait a certain time for the result. It is true that, in lieu of the cash he has paid, he is in possession of a certain quantum of property; but that property is, too generally, not available when he is most in need of money (some of it not at all); and not unfrequently he is compelled to sell it at different terms at a loss, by which a portion of his capital is literally sacrificed, and his embarrassments still further increased.

It may be said that he has the benefit of this practice when he quits his farm; but this is, in truth, only perpetuating a bad system, under which the land can never be properly improved, or made to grow what it is capable of producing.

To this it may, in a great measure, be attributed, that so large a proportion of the soil in England lies in a neglected state, or is not cultivated under a proper rotation, or rendered efficiently productive. It is true that many of these evils may be traced to a cause we before stated,—the not giving a tenant a sufficient interest in the land by means of a lease, to render it of any advantage to him to speculate in improvements; much, also, in some cases, must be ascribed to the ignorance or prejudice of occupiers of the land; but, perhaps, the greatest of all evils is that to which we have just alluded, namely, the compulsory system of valuation, because that either prevents farmers of spirit, experience, or knowledge of the subject, from taking farms which there is no doubt they would greatly improve, and in so doing set an example in their respective neighbourhoods, which might be highly and generally beneficial; or, if they do enter upon land under such a custom, it incapacitates them from making those improvements which they wish and are inclined to make, and which would be in the same degree advantageous.

If it is urged, that, in specifying a grievance, some remedy ought also to be pointed out; the answer is, that it rests entirely with the landlords, who have the power and the means, as the farms on their estates fall out of lease, or out of occupation, to make what regulations they please as to the

letting of their land. It must be obvious that, if any advantage is to be given to either tenant, it ought rather to be to the in-comer than to the out-goer, as the less money the former has to sink upon entering into the occupation of a farm, the more he has remaining in his possession to lay out in improvements: thus not merely obtaining a profit to himself, but rendering the soil more productive, and consequently more valuable; and in this way increasing the income of the landlord. The inducing a tenant to lay out money in improvements is so obvious a mode of augmenting the value of an estate, that it may be matter for surprise that it is so frequently not thought of, or neglected. If he only holds from year to year, he will, of course, only provide, according to an old saying, from hand to mouth: he can gain nothing by making improvements, and, therefore, none that are lasting or permanently advantageous will be made; but if he has a lease for fourteen or twenty-one years, then he may be enabled to obtain an adequate return for money laid out in improvements, which will naturally induce him to make them, and at the expiration of the term the land will be found in much better condition, and be in a much higher degree augmented in value, than that which was only held from year to year, at the end of a similar number of years.

To many it may, perhaps, seem, that urging

these points is merely repeating so many truisms ; but to others it is well known, and it appears very clearly in the course of this work, that in many places a system prevails of not granting leases of farms, or of granting them for terms so short, that they are not available for any beneficial purpose to the tenants, who have not the means of obtaining adequate returns for money laid out in improvements, before these brief terms are no longer in existence. It, therefore, becomes of importance to show the utility and advantage of granting leases for longer periods, and especially as contrasted with the practice of holding only from year to year, though a lease for a very short term, in fact, places the tenant in a worse situation than if he only held from year to year. Whatever motives may sometimes operate with landlords to continue this system of tenancy at will, or for short terms, it not unfrequently arises from the want of giving due consideration to the subject, or from the advantages or disadvantages of two practices, opposed to each other, not being sufficiently known or appreciated.

We are fully aware, having already alluded to that point, that many difficulties have, of late years, arisen in this respect, in consequence of the fluctuations in the price of corn, and the alterations in the currency, and the consequent difficulty, if not impossibility, of fixing an adequate annual money

rent, which, for any given term of years, should be equally fair both for landlord and tenant. But any obstacle arising from these causes may be, as we before observed, easily got rid of by making the rent fluctuate according to the market price of the produce of the farm, which would be a just criterion both for the landholder and the occupier. There may be a difference of opinion amongst landlords upon this branch of the subject, some preferring a regular annual money-rent, to one that is fluctuating, and which may produce more or less in the course of the year, according to circumstances; but so many instances have occurred of their being obliged to return to their tenants a proportion of the rent nominally due, that the system of a certain rent has, in point of fact, become, in a great measure, merged in the other of a fluctuating one; and in some cases, had the rent been made dependent upon the market price of the produce, the landlord might have really received more than he actually did: at all events, it has been proved, that a fixed annual money rent is not to be depended upon; and the only conclusion, therefore, to be drawn, is, that it is better to have a fluctuating rent which may be sometimes less, but sometimes more than an estimated amount, than a nominal rent, apparently fixed, but which holds out more than it realizes.

A fixed, having so frequently been converted,

by imperative circumstances, into a fluctuating rent, it is an easy transition to one that shall be really the latter ; and it will be found fully as much to the interest of the landlord to receive, in the shape of rent, his proportion of the produce of the soil, as to receive only three-fourths (more or less) of the money he is nominally entitled to ; whilst the tenant, always knowing what proportion of the returns for his produce is to go to the landlord, will have the certainty of not being called upon for more than the market prices of the articles he has to sell will enable him to pay. It only, therefore, requires a calculation as to what proportion ought to be given to the proprietor of the soil, by the occupier, for its use and occupation ; and this being once fairly adjusted, there is no further difficulty : the money value of the rent, of course, adjusting itself according to the prices received by the farmer in the markets for his produce ; and, whatever those prices may be, the landlord being always sure of a proportional rent. This seems to be the only system equally suitable to the interests of both parties, as under it the landlord may grant leases without any apprehension of the rent falling short of what he is entitled to, and the tenant (provided he has a sufficient term) may make improvements, without any fear of the rent being higher than he can afford to pay.

This, indeed, appears to be the only fair and

equitable system for both parties, under the operation of which each may have his just proportion. It is certainly, however, ultimately the best for the proprietor of the soil, as by means of it his land may be greatly improved, and its value much increased ; it, of course, following, that if a larger quantity of produce is drawn from, or supported by the soil, so much the more will the value of the estate be augmented. Prices may, it is true, fall, and a larger produce at one time be only equivalent to a smaller at a former period ; but, upon the average, the greater produce must, of course, be of more value than the less ; and any given number of acres that produce, for instance, double the quantity of human food that they did at a previous period, must, of course, be considered of double the value at which they were estimated at that antecedent time. Were it not so, all calculations of value would be nugatory and absurd.

Improvement has, it is true, been carried on to a considerable extent in some places where it is not the practice to grant leases ; whilst in others, where that custom prevails, the land has not been bettered : but this state of things is easily accounted for, by, in the one instance, the landlord himself becoming an improver ; and in the other, by the tenant not having yet learnt how to improve. Whilst improvement has proceeded with rapid strides in some districts, it has made but slow pro-

gress in others ; and there is still a very extensive tract in Great Britain, where there are no visible signs of its having set its foot. Agricultural societies have done much ; but their exertions, and the effect of their publications, have not hitherto produced any material alteration much beyond the immediate districts where they have been established. To say that, in the British Empire, this has arisen from the want of facility of communication, would be, perhaps, absurd ; and yet the practical effect is the same, whether there is a want of readiness of intercourse, or an indisposition to read. We have before observed, that farmers who do not read, or those who (as in many parts of Wales) do not understand the English language, are not likely to derive any benefit from agricultural publications, or to set about carrying into practice the improvements suggested in them. This remark, or at least the first part of it, probably applies to a much greater number of persons than is generally imagined by those who live in the metropolis, or in large towns. No other cause, indeed, can be assigned why, in so many parts of the country, the operations of agriculture should be so much neglected or mismanaged.

Were one system arrayed against another, it would not, amid the differences of opinion that prevail upon other subjects, be any matter of surprise ; but in many quarters there is an absence of

all system—no principles are acted upon, nor is any operation guided by any rule or dictum of science. How much, for instance, is draining neglected, involving as it does the first and most essential principle of agriculture, that of laying the soil dry, without which the land (except where naturally so) becomes, in many places, comparatively unproductive, in some nearly useless, and in others utterly worthless. Yet draining has, for the last half century and upwards, been strenuously recommended in a variety of agricultural works, and its vast advantages as clearly shown, as it was possible to elucidate any subject upon paper—an evident proof of the slowness with which improvements recommended in this manner are carried into effect; and this can only arise from publications of this nature not being read by a great number of those individuals from whom chiefly, or alone, is to be expected the realization of systems in general practice, that have been found, after various trials, in some quarters, to be highly beneficial.

Inveterate prejudices, doubtless, frequently, for a long time, oppose the introduction of improvement and amelioration, and to this cause may partly be attributed the slowness of their progress: but in many places it is too clearly established to admit of any contradiction, that old systems are persevered in merely from the ignorance of a

better ; and that those who cultivate the land, proceed in the track of their forefathers, solely because they do not know that there is any other road more easy, or more advantageous. There is, in truth, no other way of accounting for the continuance of those modes of managing and farming land in some counties, which are equally ruinous to the soil, and unprofitable to its cultivator. Much, undoubtedly, may frequently rest with landlords ; and if any of those gentlemen are content to have their estates continually deteriorated in value by mismanagement, and the want of any proper system of cropping, there is nothing to be said, but that they have a right to do as they please with their own property. We do not, however, mean to say that this is the case : it is well known to many how difficult it is to contend with local prejudices, or against local habits and customs ; and it, doubtless, frequently happens that these, more or less, operate to prevent or to stifle improvement.

Almost all states of existence are pretty nearly equalised, so far as relates to actual enjoyment ; the bountiful goodness of Providence generally granting compensations on the one hand, for what may be deficient on the other : this may, to a certain extent, be applied to land, it being very often found that the poorer soils are much better cultivated, and produce a more ample return, than

those which are rich ; the former having, as it were, through the necessity of the case, led to the exertion of greater industry, and the application of more enlarged means, in order to render them at all productive ; whilst the latter have been left to their natural fertility, with scarcely any artificial aid, and have thus not unfrequently produced less, and become less valuable, than the land which was originally of a very inferior description. In the one case, necessity may be truly said to be the mother of invention ; it leads to greater industry than might otherwise be employed, and to the discovery of various improved modes of cultivation and operations in husbandry, which might not otherwise have been thought of : whilst, in the other, the soil producing, in great abundance, the necessaries of life with little trouble, no sufficient consideration is given to its nature or its properties, or the best mode in which it may be managed ; and it is too often deteriorated or exhausted through the mere absence of precaution, or the want of common care and attention.

Both these cases are exemplified in several parts of Great Britain ; and in various quarters it may require some outlay of capital, and much skilful management, to bring land, originally rich and fertile, but spoiled by bad management, into that state which will place it upon an equality with other soils formerly or naturally poor and cold, but which,

by well-directed skill and assiduous industry, have been rendered highly productive. It is, of course, always a question how far any land, from its nature, will repay the expense laid out upon it; but there are few soils which may not be made to produce something for profit: the whole secret lies in discovering what each is best calculated to grow, so as to be worked to the greatest advantage; and it is this, respecting which there is, in general, so much deficiency of knowledge amongst the tenantry in England and Wales. It is through this want of information that, in many quarters, the land is not managed so as to produce what it is most fit for. There is nothing which is more essential to the good management of the soil, than the taking care that it shall not become exhausted, or have any tendency that way; and this, undoubtedly, requires a regular system, the want of which, in several quarters, so much injures the land.

There may be, and have been at various times, different opinions operating as to the best maxims of agriculture; but all are agreed that the due application of manure, and a proper rotation of crops, are essential to the good management of any soil that is capable of being made productive. Respecting the qualities and operation of different manures, chemical science has been applied with a highly beneficial effect; but in this, as in all other cases, there are certain points beyond which sci-

ence cannot reach, and it is only by means of actual and repeated experiments that a sufficient knowledge of the subject can be attained. Thus, though the advantageous effects of lime, as a manure, are well known, yet the mode by which it mixes with and fertilizes the soil, remains hitherto undiscovered by the most acute and scientific chemists ; it is, in general, known what the effect will be, but the immediate cause by which that effect is produced, remains as yet a secret. It must not, however, be forgotten that lime, when used too constantly, or in too great quantities, renders barren or exhausts the soil, which, when applied moderately, and not too often, it fertilizes beyond almost any other species of manure. The comparative dearness or cheapness of it must, of course, be taken into the account, with reference to its employment in different situations : where it is to be obtained with little difficulty, and at a low or moderate price, it will, doubtless, be preferred as the most powerfully active agent in promoting vegetation ; but where it can only be procured from a considerable distance, and at a high rate, it may become a question whether other manures may not be equally advantageous. It is certain, that much yet remains to be discovered respecting the nature and properties of various articles used for the purposes of manure.

The judicious application of manure is, undoubt-

edly, one of the most essential parts of good husbandry ; the only wonder is, that in some quarters it should still be so much neglected, or so greatly misunderstood. Without it, there can be no proper cultivation or good management, and of this a sufficient proof is to be found in the wretched appearance of those soils where, in this respect, there is no system. It might be supposed that manuring the land would be an established custom, regularly handed down from father to son ; but even this, in some instances, does not seem to be the case, or if it is, there is so utter a want of system as to render it almost entirely inefficient : whilst in other places the manure employed is not, either with regard to its qualities, or the mode of using it, rendered of that advantage to the soil that it might be, under skilful management. In many districts it is, undoubtedly, well understood, and the land is highly benefited ; for, although various kinds of manure are used according to their price, or to other circumstances, yet they are skilfully applied, and with a due regard to the nature and qualities of the soil. It were to be wished that this was generally the case ; but there seems, unfortunately, to be many obstacles to overcome, before the true principles of agriculture can be fully recognized and appreciated.

There is, in truth, but a small proportion of the country where a complete system of husbandry is

regularly practised ; an evident proof how much yet remains to be done to bring the whole into a proper state of cultivation. That capital to a large amount, and the labour of a great number of hands, may, in this way, be profitably employed, there seems little doubt. It would be a subject for deep lamentation if, through any mistaken view with reference to this point, the men the most able to labour were sent to till the soil of distant colonies, instead of being employed to more advantage at home. It is undoubtedly true, that out of this question arise many difficulties which render it extremely complicated, and one perhaps the most puzzling, taken in all its bearings, which it falls to the lot of the statesman or political economist to decide upon. It may, however, be confidently affirmed that the power and strength of an empire mainly depend upon its population ; and that if a large proportion of the young, the hearty and the strong, are sent away, the remainder will prove but a feeble resource in the hour of danger, or of need. It is, of course, generally speaking, only the former portion of the people that can form the objects of any projected plan of emigration. The case of an amount of population exceeding the means of comfortable subsistence, or in other words the stock of labour being beyond the demand for it, may, of course, here be put ; and one of the great difficulties of the question is, the ascertain-

ment of the fact, whether, all circumstances being considered, such a state of affairs actually exists, or whether it is only so in appearance, arising from an artificial combination of causes and effects, which may be removed or otherwise arranged.

The highly artificial state of the British empire renders this a question of no ordinary interest or magnitude. During a war of unprecedented length; an immense demand led to a proportionate increase of supply ; to a vast increase of profit, and a great accumulation of capital ; to an abundance of profitable employment, and a very considerable augmentation of the means of subsistence : the transition from war to peace led, as a necessary consequence, greatly to diminish the demand ; to render it impossible to employ to advantage a great part of the accumulated capital, and very much to lessen the call for employment in every branch of industry or labour. But the accumulation of capital remained, till unhappily a great part of it has been sacrificed in bubbles and baseless speculations, whilst, for a large proportion of the remainder, little or no annual return can be obtained ; and the increased produce of industry also, in various shapes, remained on hand, now greatly exceeding the demand, and to a certain extent kept increasing until ruinously low prices either rendered insolvent the producer, or compelled him to diminish his supply, in order, by suiting the altered state of the

demand, to have some chance of remuneration ; and thus again was the demand for industry and labour still further lessened, and a great number of persons either rendered destitute of the means of subsistence, or compelled to content themselves at the expense of many privations.

These causes and effects reproducing, as it were, each other, have, there is no doubt, contributed greatly to distress a considerable portion of the population, for whose talents of whatever nature, industry or labour, there is no demand ; and thus it is that the question has arisen, whether these individuals cannot be employed with advantage to the empire, and comfort to themselves, in some of the British colonies, instead of remaining idle, useless, and unprofitable at home. The subject, however, branches out into a great variety of ramifications, and involves a vast number of considerations, each of which requires a deep, a long, and serious meditation, but which it is not intended to attempt to investigate here : the main point which requires to be preliminarily discussed, and which certainly ought to be first disposed of, is, whether the apparent want of employment at home is real or not ; or, in other words, whether it is not possible to discover new resources, in the parent country, from whence an additional demand for industry and labour may arise sufficient for the purpose, without resorting to the last and almost

desperate expedient of sending forth a large proportion of the population to distant lands. In both cases, there must, of course, be a considerable outlay of capital ; but, in the former, both the capital and the people would be retained within the bosom of the mother-country, whilst, in the latter, both would be transferred to distant colonies, which may or may not, at a future period, form any portion of the British empire.

The advantages, therefore, of the former plan are self-evident, provided there exist any practicable means of carrying it into effect. Here certainly arise many difficulties, but not, perhaps, greater than those that stand in the way of any scheme of emigration upon a large scale. The question whether that part of the population who cannot at present find any profitable channel of industry, or at least a considerable proportion of them, might not be employed to advantage at home, instead of sending them abroad, naturally arises out of the neglect and almost abandoned state of a considerable portion of the soil of England and Wales, which is disclosed in the course of the present work. There are many spots in the United Kingdom where individuals might be settled, more profitably to themselves and their families, and more advantageously to the community, than by being located in Canada, or any other colony. It is true that many questions of property

arise in the former case, which do not apply to the latter ; but it would be deeply to be lamented were these to operate to prevent a great benefit accruing to the state. It is not meant to pursue this subject in detail, nor would it be consistent with the nature of a work like this : it is merely wished to throw out, as it were, a question for consideration ; but it is certainly a most material point, and one most important to the interests of the British empire, to ascertain, as far as it is practicable to collect facts, whether the population presses upon the means of subsistence, so as to create a necessity for emigration, or whether it is not possible so far to augment the means of subsistence in the parent state, as to provide comfortably for all, or the greater part of those who at present cannot find employment.

Those who are sent at the expense of the state to colonize, of course go to provide, by their own industry and application, the means of subsistence for themselves and their families, with the aid of a certain portion of capital furnished to them for that purpose. There are many districts in the United Kingdom where they might do precisely the same, and the expense of the voyage being saved, more capital would be available for the main object in view. In the former case, both the people and the capital would be, in a great degree, separated from the mother-country ; whilst in the latter, they,

and all their dealings, would still form integral parts of it, and thereby tend to increase the home trade, the great importance of which cannot be too highly appreciated. Those who merely look to supply and demand, may think these considerations of no importance; but it is evident that no country can long prosper unless it has within itself an adequate population, and sufficient means of subsistence for its people; and no measure ought to be wanting calculated to keep up and protect both, up to that point which is required by national greatness and security.

It cannot be doubted that the British empire is indebted to its agriculture for the main spring of its high pre-eminence; and this leads to the consideration of

THE VAST DIMINUTION OF THE REVENUE; AND OTHER
CONSEQUENCES WHICH MUST FOLLOW ANY GREAT
DEPRECIATION IN THE VALUE OF AGRICULTURAL
PRODUCE.

It is not here intended to discuss the agricultural question, but merely to notice those points which fall more immediately within the scope and tendency of this work. It must be obvious, that in the highly artificial state in which this country has been wrought, (if such a term may be allowed,) especially for the greater part of the last half cen-

tury, general and abstract principles cannot be applied to it without deeply injuring all the interests of the state. It would be like destroying a magnificent and most commodious edifice, merely because it was not constructed precisely according to the rules of art, or the strict maxims of taste. The empire must, therefore, be taken as it is, with all the considerations arising out of its greatness, its prosperity, and its safety; and with all the views that are dictated by sound policy, with reference to the maintenance of its high rank as a state. There are few Englishmen who would wish to see a foreign country benefited at the expense of their own; there are, perhaps, a great number who are too eagerly bent on obtaining for their native soil greater advantages than the present state of the world will admit of; but there is another party who seek to give a boon to the trade and manufactures, at the expense of the agriculture of the country, impressed with the idea that it would ultimately lead to greater general prosperity. The great difficulty with the practical statesman is, to steer a middle course between conflicting opinions, and so to adjust all the interests of the empire, that one shall not be sacrificed to the other, which would be an injury to all; and at the same time, that no unnecessary impediments are allowed to remain in the way of trade.

The different classes in the British empire are

so dependent upon each other, and their interests so connected, like links in a chain, that scarcely any measure can be carried into effect applying to one, without also affecting the others in a greater or less degree; and this has at different times been fortunately or unhappily experienced, by those whose incomes, from the sources whence they are derived, are necessarily fluctuating. It is obvious also, that producers depend upon consumers, and that if the means of the latter are diminished, in a similar proportion must the returns and the profits of the former decrease. Where both classes reside within the limits of the same state, this is, of course, a very simple chain of cause and effect; when the producers, or any one class of them, depend for a considerable sale upon foreign consumers, their relative position becomes more complicated; but when a large proportion of them look to that resource, but are, up to a certain point, protected against foreign competition in the home-market, whilst another great class producing the necessaries of life, are, from the nature of circumstances, shut out from foreign markets, and compelled to depend entirely upon the home consumption, then the question becomes still more complicated and involved so far as regards the parties; but justice and the interests and welfare of the state require, that they should all be sufficiently protected against foreign competi-

tion in the home-market. It is so obvious indeed that, but for protecting duties, all classes of producers would be ruined, that it is not attempted to be denied.

It being confessedly of the most essential importance to the manufacturer who has the resource of foreign commerce, that he should not be undersold by the foreigner in the home-market, upon which after all he must place his main reliance, it is, of course, of still greater moment to the agriculturist, that he should not have a successful foreign competition to encounter in the home-market, which to him is all in all, his produce not being able to compete on any foreign mart with that which can be brought from the neighbourhood, or from other countries. Were he not therefore protected up to a certain point against foreign competition, his produce would be ruinously depreciated in value; no farmer could derive a profit sufficient for the subsistence of himself and his family from land for which he paid any rent, and the landholders must, like those in many parts of the continent, farm their own estates. The farmers being thus extinguished, and the labouring classes being reduced nearly to pauperism, and the landlords themselves being placed in a situation very little above that of the present farmers, with their income not only greatly diminished, but most uncertain and preca-

rious, the consequence would be that great numbers of the manufacturers, traders, and shopkeepers, who in a great measure, and in several places, altogether depend upon those classes for their profits, their incomes, and even their subsistence, would be utterly ruined; and this almost universal insolvency, pauperism, and beggary, would be entirely owing to the depreciations in the value of agricultural produce.

Not only this, but other classes, would be, ere long, deeply affected: it is needless to say that all individuals engaged in professional pursuits, artists, and men of science and literature, must suffer in a still greater degree than those who derive their support from dealing in the necessities of life, because there would be little or no surplus, out of which the larger portion of them could obtain even a scanty maintenance. There are still others who must suffer; the revenue, from the diminution of the produce of direct taxation, from the great decrease in the consumption of excisable articles, and the vast falling off in foreign trade, must be most seriously lessened, and consequently the incomes of all who depend upon it must be largely subtracted from. It would be impossible to pay the full amount of the interest of the public debt; and thus all the annuitants deriving their resources from that, would be deprived of great part of their incomes, by which it is obvious the

general distress would be still further increased, as the money they laid out in the purchase of various articles would no longer be forthcoming. This wide-spreading ruin would all arise from the depreciation in the value of agricultural produce; and where would be the compensation? is it to be found in manufactures and foreign trade? It must be evident that those manufacturers who were not utterly ruined by the want of demand in the home-market, must experience a most serious diminution in their returns, their profits, and incomes from the same cause; and in both cases, a great number of hands must be discharged, which would still further increase the already overwhelming distress. It must be equally obvious that foreign trade depends in a great measure upon the home-market, and that the demand there being greatly lessened, the trade itself must be proportionably diminished, and all who depend upon it must more or less suffer; so far, therefore, from there being a compensation, the deficiency would not even be made up, nor, in effect, could the government be carried on.

The value of all landed property must of course depend upon that of its produce; depreciate the latter, and the former becomes proportionably lessened: but if by any means of legislative measure, or through its operation, the prices of agricultural produce are so far reduced, that

no one will lay out capital upon the soil as a tenant, because he cannot obtain a profit sufficient for subsistence, and at the same time pay rent to the proprietor of the land, then the value of the property becomes almost incalculably diminished ; because the landlord himself receiving from it no rent, and deriving from it only a very precarious and scanty income, and that fluctuating according to the state of the markets, it is no longer a desirable object of investment, nor will any one possessed of money become a purchaser of land, unless he has no other possible mode of turning his capital to profit, or rather of rendering it in the slightest degree productive. This state of affairs is strikingly exemplified in the actual situation of many landed proprietors in the north of Europe, as detailed in the reports of Mr. Jacob. There individuals are to be found possessed of large estates, which in Great Britain would produce princely incomes, and enable their proprietors materially to encourage and support manufactures and trade, destitute themselves almost of the means of subsistence, at least in any way commensurate with the rank they ought to hold as great landed proprietors, and altogether deprived of many of those comforts and luxuries which are even enjoyed by farmers in Great Britain ; and this entirely arising from the prices of agricultural produce being ruinously low.

The same reports also show, that the like cause operates to render the incomes of those who have advanced money upon the security of these estates; so far as they depend upon that resource, equally precarious and uncertain as those of the proprietors of the soil: this, indeed, follows as a matter of course; and were the landholders here placed in a similar situation, all those who had lent their money upon mortgage or upon annuities secured upon the land, would feel precisely the same effect, whilst their situation would in general only be rendered worse by taking possession of the land, and changing places with its proprietors. Thus no class would escape being more or less, and in many instances greatly and deeply, affected by the depreciation in the value of agricultural produce.

There is no doubt that agriculture has been the broad basis of the prosperity of the empire; and that in proportion as that has flourished all the interests of the country have been benefited, whilst its depression and embarrassments have greatly deteriorated the situation of almost every other class of society. The vivifying influence of the sums expended by the proprietors and cultivators of the soil has been felt in every branch of trade and manufactures; and nothing can be clearer than that any material diminution of the demand thus created, must tend to the great loss,

embarrassment, or ruin of those by whom it was supplied. The operation of this cause has been, within the last few years, seriously and lamentably experienced; and many of those who are most interested must have been convinced, that no accession of foreign trade either did or could compensate them for the loss they sustained by the decreased demand at home. It is evident that the more money there is to expend, the greater will be the demand for every article of comfort, convenience, or luxury; and, consequently, the more of human industry and labour will be required to produce or manufacture the article thus wanted. Diminish the existing cause, and, of course, the effect will be proportionably lessened; fewer articles, and those of less price, will be wanted, and a smaller proportion of industry and labour will be required to furnish them. Whatever, therefore, tends materially to reduce the incomes of any considerable class in the state, produces, from the great variety of ramifications through which the consequences of a much decreased demand operates, an amount of evil and of suffering, which, in the first instance, can scarcely be estimated, but which in its progress becomes too fearfully apparent.

It is in vain to say that this is artificial; every association of human society must necessarily, to a greater or less extent, be artificial, nor can

it be otherwise without dissolving the very bonds by which it is held together, and reducing it to its first elements, or, in other words, to a state of nature. There may be systems which are too highly artificial; but because they are so, to apply to them the rude axe of demolition would be little short of madness, producing, as it inevitably must, an accumulated mass of human suffering, which would be dreadful to contemplate. The only safe remedy, if one be requisite, is to make alterations slowly and cautiously, so as gradually to effect the desired change: and even this cannot be done without much loss and detriment to numberless individuals. But it is not merely this: all the great and paramount interests of the state, involving as they do its greatness, its power, its station and rank, and even its political existence—if its revenue is but barely sufficient to meet or to cover its expenditure, it must be obvious that whatever tends to diminish its income, tends also to disorganize, as it were, its functions, and if greatly lessened, to render it powerless and incapable of maintaining its rank amongst nations, or even of vigorously or effectually defending itself. The resources of a state must of course either flourish or decay, in proportion to the prosperous or adverse condition of the classes of which it is composed; all those classes deal with and pay each other, if not, in some instances, in a

direct, yet in a circuitous course, and what is taken from one is necessarily a deduction from the profits or income of others.

It therefore becomes essential to touch lightly and with a tender hand any system, however it may have grown up, that involves the interests of numerous individuals; nothing being more alien to sound policy than to sacrifice to a general principle either the prosperity of a state, or the welfare of any of the larger bodies of persons of which it is composed. The very essence of good government frequently is, the making the best compromise that circumstances will permit between opposite or conflicting interests, or between the furtherance of a principle believed to be of great importance, and the care of the interests of those who would be affected by its operation. Nor can this be considered at all impolitic, when it is notorious that many measures are and have been materially altered from their original purport and intent, merely to accommodate, or not to shock the prejudices of any numerous body of the people, and this undoubtedly in strict conformity with the wisdom of practical statesmen. There is nothing perhaps more striking, than the great difference that frequently exists between what appears to be the best in theory, and what is found by experience to be practically the most beneficial; and political economists, whose science

is yet in its infancy, have in general much to unlearn before they can become competent teachers of what is the most really useful, and at the same time not more injurious than beneficial.

Were the prices of agricultural produce in Great Britain driven down to the low rate which some seem to have contemplated, by the too easy introduction of commodities of a similar description, the growth of foreign soils, it is by no means too much to say, that the depreciation in the value of land and contingent property would amount to 600,000,000*l.* ; and where is the foreign trade to be found that could by possibility compensate for such an enormous deficit, which must in its effects involve the utter ruin of almost every class of the community? It is not merely the landholders, the farmers, and the agricultural labourers, but the greater proportion of the merchants, the traders, and shopkeepers, the artisans, and mechanics, and in addition, of the professional men, and men of literature and science, who would be involved in the wide-spreading calamity; whilst in the revenue, there would be, as a necessary consequence, a lamentable falling off, and the incomes of all who in any shape depend upon it must be most seriously diminished, if not in many instances nearly annihilated. This would be to destroy the main source of England's greatness, that continual accumulation of surplus capital, which has

enabled her to arbitrate the destinies of Europe, and triumphantly rule in so many parts of the globe. How much we owe to our fleets and armies, and to the patriotism and adventurous spirit of numbers of our fellow-countrymen, every one knows and feels; but all must be convinced that, without a large disposable capital, the skill and valour of our officers, the bravery and discipline of our seamen and soldiers, or the genius, the talents, or speculative industry of so many of our compatriots, would have been comparatively of little avail.

To say that this large and constantly increasing capital was made up of the savings out of the profits and the incomes of an immense number of individuals, which, invested in various ways, tended to produce additional profits, and there again additional capital, would be only repeating an obvious truism. And yet this truism seems to have been of late, in some instances, too much lost sight of, or at least not considered in that point of view which its great importance demands. It is not meant to be asserted that one class ought to be benefited by injuring others, but that it ought always to be kept in remembrance, that the diminution of the incomes of individuals is necessarily followed by the reduction of their expenditure, and *that* by a proportionate decrease in the returns and profits of all those tradesmen with

whom they deal, by which, in their turn, the receipts of the wholesale traders, or manufacturers, of whom the tradesmen buy, are similarly diminished, and the demand for labour of various kinds is also lessened, by which many persons are thrown out of employ. There is nothing, therefore, more essential to the general prosperity and welfare of the country, than the maintaining as far as possible the different classes of the community in the stations which they respectively hold. By doing this, each and all of them are benefited; by pursuing measures of an opposite description, all are more or less injured, and the empire itself ultimately becomes paralyzed in power, and lowered in rank and degree.

There are no greater fallacies in argument than arise out of an inordinate desire for cheapness: there are, of course, in every question, extreme points, but, generally speaking, cheap and dear are relative terms, the true definition of which is to be found in the consideration of a variety of apparently extrinsic circumstances, independent of the obvious ones of plenty and scarcity. This is fully exemplified by comparing the prices of various articles a few centuries back, with those of the present day, or of a recent period, by which it is at once seen that price and value are modes of expression, which can only be properly explained by a reference to a number of data, that

involve precisely the very considerations which have been adverted to, as well as others. Without referring to the question of the circulating medium or currency, which is not within the scope of this work, it must be obvious to every reader of history, that between the times of very low prices and much higher ones, there has been a vast leap in almost all the states of Europe, but more especially in the British empire, from a species of semi-barbarism to a high degree of civilization and refinement ; from homely fare and rude state to luxury and magnificence ; from poverty to great wealth. Undoubtedly many causes have contributed to this ; but to embark in a vast and extensive commerce, to achieve great and expensive works, to carry on immense operations of various kinds, required a very large capital, and how was that capital accumulated ? It of course follows, that in the mass it was produced as before observed, from the savings of profits and incomes, or, in other words, the surplus of them beyond the expenditure of the individuals receiving or enjoying them ; but from what sources, from what classes did these savings, this surplus proceed ? It may be said from trade and commerce, and manufactures : undoubtedly they did much ; but merchants and manufacturers, and traders, must have customers, besides merely dealing with each other. And who were these customers ? beyond all

question, the larger proportion of them were the proprietors and occupiers of the soil ; and as the incomes of the latter increased from the rise in the money value or prices of the produce of the land, in the same proportion were the profits of the former increased.

This is so evidently exemplified in the British empire, where so long a period has elapsed since the land was, as it were, emancipated by the abolition of feudal tenures, as to admit of no contradiction. It is true that, during several years in the course of the late war, this situation of affairs became highly artificial ; but still the same relative effects were produced ; the incomes of all classes were much increased, and the wealth of the state greatly augmented. The alteration in the currency, and other circumstances, have, of course, since produced a great change ; profits and incomes have been diminished, and less capital is accumulated ; but were the relative position of the different classes to be destroyed, the deficit, as already observed, would be of alarming amount. It is impossible for any state to become great and powerful within itself by means of commerce alone ; all history proves that, where trade alone was depended upon, though considerable wealth might be accumulated, yet when the hour of danger came, the state was found to be nerveless and powerless, and incapable of making any effectual resistance.

It is agriculture that must form the basis of national prosperity ; and, doubtless, the real and efficient cause of the vast affluence and great pre-eminence of Britain, has been the combination of the great sources of wealth, agriculture, manufactures, and commerce, which in no other country exists to the same degree, or to the same extent. Destroy this combination, and the talisman is broken ; the charm is dissolved ; the magician's wand is no longer potent ; and the wealth, and power, and pre-eminence of the British empire, must sink to a much lower level.

That monopoly or exclusive privileges should be given to agriculture, is by no means contended for, but merely this,—that its relative position in the community should be preserved, it being, as it undoubtedly is, the main arm and support of the state. The agriculturist cannot derive any profit in a foreign market by the export of his produce, the manufacturer does to a considerable amount ; but the former has to support public burdens, and that to a great extent, which do not fall upon the latter : the latter can take advantage of high prices in the markets, and thereby frequently greatly enhance his profits ; whilst the former is precluded from this resource by the nature of the articles in which he deals—they being absolutely necessary for the subsistence of the people, and therefore he cannot be allowed to receive beyond a certain

price, if they can be procured at a cheaper rate elsewhere. The manufacturer, however, notwithstanding these advantages, finds it absolutely essential to his welfare to be, up to a certain point, protected against foreign competition in the home market : how much more, then, is it necessary that the agriculturist, without the same advantages, should, in the same market, be protected against a similar competition ! The manufacturer, in many instances, finds it necessary to sell at a low rate, and be content with small profits, in order to meet competition in the foreign markets ; but the agriculturist cannot afford to sell at a price equivalent to that low rate, because in that case he would not only have no profit, but absolutely experience a loss, and be rendered unable to pay the tithes, the rates, and taxes, which fall exclusively upon the land. And let it not be forgotten that in many parts of the country the land is additionally and most grievously burdened, by having to support the manufacturing poor, who, when aged or infirm, or unable to obtain work, are, in great numbers, thrown upon their parishes in the agricultural districts, which are obliged to maintain them by means of the poor-rates. It being intended to observe, in another section, upon the comparative amount of these rates in the different counties, and to show how much they are increased in those which are situated near the manufacturing districts, it is proposed now to notice the other

**BURDENS WHICH PARTICULARLY FALL UPON THE
AGRICULTURAL CLASSES, AND THE EFFECTS PRO-
DUCED BY INDIRECT TAXATION.**

The tithes are, of course, the first or main feature in this picture ; and without meaning, in the slightest degree, to insinuate that the clergy ought not to be properly maintained in the class to which they belong, but on the contrary, being earnestly desirous that religious instruction should be provided and properly paid for throughout the country, it still must be allowed that the tithes are a great burden upon the land, falling upon it as they do exclusively. It is true that in some places they have been extinguished by means of allotments of land in lieu of them, and that in several others compositions are resorted to, which is a better mode, in general, for both parties, than collecting them in kind ; but in whatever way they are still received, the land has to provide them ; and it, of course, follows, that in apportioning what may be considered a fair price for agricultural produce, the amount of the tithes must form a material ingredient in the valuation. Had the manufacturer, in the same manner, to part with a tenth of the goods which he manufactures, or to pay an equivalent for the value, he must, of course, proportionably raise the prices of the remainder to the consumer.

The repair of the roads is another tax which falls exclusively, or nearly so, upon the land ; and though, as compared with the amount of the tithes, or in various places, of the poor-rates, it may be thought light, still it is no inconsiderable burden, especially when added to others, and thus making a large sum total. In some districts, it will be seen, it is compounded for by means of labour, the employment of waggons, carts, &c. ; in others it is partly so, and partly paid in money ; and in several places wholly the latter, a rate of a certain poundage being demanded from each farm. Whichever way it is managed, it forms an item, and sometimes rather a considerable one, in the outgoings of the farmer, for which he can only receive compensation by means of the price of his produce. It is, of course, highly essential that the public roads should be kept in a good state of repair ; but it should always be borne in mind that all classes of His Majesty's subjects derive benefit from their being so, and that the expense is charged upon the land, the holders and occupiers of which, therefore, must, in some shape or other, be remunerated.

That a large proportion of both the direct and indirect taxation, by which the revenue of the country is supported, falls upon the land, is a fact too well known to require elucidation ; and in some cases, a tax which appears comparatively

trifling, is, to the agriculturist, a very onerous burden; as, for instance, the additional duty on leather, which, by a strange anomaly in finance, falls the heaviest upon those who are the least able to pay it, namely, the poorer classes, and especially those employed in agriculture. Both the proprietors and occupiers of the soil are, with reference to indirect taxation, placed in a situation in which they frequently cannot avoid paying taxes, indirectly, to a greater extent, and a larger amount, than other classes possessed of the same or of higher incomes: the former on account of keeping up their station in society, the performance of public duties, and the due exercise of hospitality; and the latter through the absolute necessity of carrying on their business, as well as the execution of that portion of public duty (and that not the least important) which devolves upon them. The manufacturer or trader, who lives in a town, is not under the same necessity; it is true that, to carry on his business, he must unavoidably incur certain expenses, and thus, to a certain extent, pay indirect taxes, but not nearly to the amount which is rendered absolutely essential by the proprietorship or occupation of land. But the former classes derive a very considerable profit from the expenditure of those who possess or rent the soil, and were that of necessity greatly reduced, through the operation of any measure much depreciating the

value of agricultural produce, not only would those profits disappear, but there would be nothing to supply their place, nor would there be any means of filling up the deficit thus caused in the revenue.

A mere ordinary calculation, therefore, will prove, that to maintain agriculture in its station as one of the great interests of the community, which is essential to the general welfare and prosperity of the state, it is absolutely necessary that it should be protected against foreign competition in a higher degree, or at a higher rate, than manufactures ; because the expenses of production, including tithes, taxes, and rates, are much greater, and the profit, at all times precarious, absolutely depends upon not being driven out of the home market, there being no other to which the British agriculturist can resort. The manufacturer may thus, it is true, be compelled to pay higher wages to his workmen than he would were the necessaries of life to be procured at a cheaper rate ; but in so doing, he, in fact, pays no more than his share, (nor so much,) in another shape, towards the burdens of the state ; and he receives a more than ample compensation in the profits he derives from the goods he furnishes to agricultural consumers. As to the operative manufacturers, they have certainly no interest in such a question, because the amount of their wages must always be regulated by the price of the principal necessaries of life. Were

the agricultural classes to be so far reduced in their incomes, that they could only expend one-half or one-fourth of the money they do at present, they could only lay out that proportion or less of what they now do in the purchase of manufactures, and of some, such as many articles of luxury, or taste and magnificence, they could buy none : the manufacturers, therefore, of all articles of artificial produce, must experience a defalcation in their returns, and their profits, more than equivalent to this deficiency in the incomes of the agriculturists, because, in many instances, they must reduce their business to so small a scale, as still further to lessen their profits ; whilst in no case would the reduction of the wages of the hands they employ, or any possible addition of foreign trade, already extended nearly to its utmost limits, make up for the loss thus sustained. The operatives, at the same time, would feel the change severely, because, when a man's wages are low, it is a known fact, that however cheap may be the necessaries of life, he has not the same means of being comfortable that he possesses when he receives higher wages, although he pays much more for articles of food ; and many of them would have no wages at all, because there would be no call for their industry or labour.

But there is another most important consideration, with reference to the relative position of the agriculturist and the manufacturer, arising out of

the support and maintenance of the poor, and this leads us to

THE EFFECT OF THE POOR-RATES.

The land has not only to support its own poor, but also the greater proportion of the manufacturing poor. To what extent, to what amount in each county respectively, how seriously that amount is increased in the immediate neighbourhood of manufacturing districts, and what the proportion is per acre, thus paid in different districts for the maintenance of the poor, will be seen by the following

Account of the Sums levied annually, according to the latest Returns, for Poor-Rates.

* This mark is put where there is a fraction less than a farthing.

Counties.	Annual Amount.			No. of Acres.	Proportion per Acre.		
	£.	s.	d.		£.	s.	d.
Bedford	92,340	11	0	296,320	0	6	2½*
Berks	118,593	0	0	483,840	0	4	10½*
Bucks	153,912	6	0	473,600	0	6	5½*
Cambridge . . .	105,712	6	0	549,120	0	3	10*
Chester	148,493	1	0	673,280	0	4	4½*
Cornwall	120,455	7	0	849,280	0	2	10*
Cumberland . .	60,501	8	0	945,920	0	1	3½*
Derby	97,532	0	0	656,640	0	2	11½*
Devon	247,641	8	0	1,650,560	0	3	0*
Dorset	97,520	15	0	643,200	0	3	0½*
Durham	97,417	13	0	679,040	0	2	10½*
Essex	306,430	2	0	980,480	0	6	3*
Gloucester . . .	190,224	1	0	803,840	0	4	8½*
Hereford	68,731	17	0	556,400	0	2	5½*

Counties.	Annual Amount.			No. of Acres.	Proportion per Acre.		
	£.	s.	d.		£.	s.	d.
Hertford	109,072	19	0	337,920	0	6	5½ ^x
Huntingdon . .	49,518	13	0	236,800	0	4	2 ^x
Kent	384,120	11	0	983,680	0	7	9½ ^x
Lancaster* . .	545,737	3	0	1,171,840	0	9	3½ ^x
Leicester	138,982	15	0	514,560	0	5	4½ ^x
Lincoln	214,750	0	0	1,758,720	0	2	5¼ ^x
Middlesex† . . .	666,418	5	0	180,486	3	13	10 ^x
Monmouth	32,144	5	0	318,720	0	2	0 ^x
Norfolk	343,970	17	0	1,338,880	0	5	1½ ^x
Northampton . .	168,068	1	0	648,880	0	5	2 ^x
Northumberland‡	78,923	17	0	1,197,440	0	1	3½ ^x
Nottingham . . .	99,085	18	0	535,680	0	3	8¼ ^x
Oxford	139,005	0	0	485,280	0	5	8 ^x
Rutland	14,029	7	0	95,860	0	2	11¼ ^x
Salop	96,921	3	0	858,940	0	2	3 ^x
Somerset	189,692	5	0	1,050,080	0	3	7½ ^x
Southampton . .	213,406	4	0	1,041,920	0	4	1 ^x
Stafford	165,518	12	0	734,720	0	4	6 ^x
Suffolk	253,475	19	0	979,200	0	5	2 ^x
Surrey	288,108	15	0	485,120	0	11	10½ ^x
Sussex §	274,185	2	0	936,330	0	5	10½ ^x
Warwick	169,537	4	0	577,280	0	5	10¼ ^x
Westmorland ‡ .	31,029	15	0	488,320	0	1	3¼ ^x

* The amount of the Poor-Rates in Lancashire, and some other counties, decidedly proves how much the extension of manufactures tends to increase them, in comparison with the districts that are more exclusively agricultural.

† In Middlesex, Surrey, and Kent, of course a large proportion of the Poor-Rates is paid by houses, assessments being made upon them at a certain rate in the pound, proportioned to the sum wanted, upon two-thirds or three-fifths of the actual rent; sometimes upon the whole amount of the rack-rent.

‡ The small amount of the Poor-Rates in these counties is a most convincing proof of the superior excellence of the system there acted upon.

§ This county is more heavily burdened with *Poor-Rates* than any other district of a similar description, which can only be accounted for as related in the Customs and Practice of Tenancy; and *which* are greatly increased in every county that encourages a similar practice.

Counties.	Annual Amount.		No. of Acres.	Proportion per Acre.		
	£.	s. d.		£.	s.	d.
Wilts	192,914	17 0	882,560	0	4	4 $\frac{1}{4}$ ^x
Worcester	93,685	16 0	466,560	0	4	0 ^x
York	611,411	8 0		0	3	3 $\frac{1}{2}$ ^x
<i>In the following proportions, viz.</i>						
East Riding .	121,474	2 0	819,200	0	2	11 $\frac{1}{2}$ ^x
North ditto .	98,532	12 0	1,311,187	0	1	6 ^x
West ditto .	391,404	14 0	1,568,000	0	4	11 $\frac{3}{4}$ ^x
				<i>Proportion per Acre</i>		
Total . .	7,469,220	6 0	32,332,400	0	4	7 $\frac{1}{4}$ ^x

It must be obvious to every one that this very large sum, or at least the far greater part of it, cannot be paid out of what is received for the produce of the land, without considerably increasing the price of that produce, beyond the rate at which articles of the same description can be afforded to be sold in other countries, where poor-rates do not exist. It is equally evident that, unless a price can be obtained for agricultural produce considerably higher than that at which it can be imported from foreign states, (at least in seasons of ordinary plenty,) the poor cannot be maintained, or the other expenses, borne by the land, paid; and at the same time any profit whatever be derived by a farmer from cultivating the soil, if he has any rent to pay. Thus, unless there is a sufficient protection against foreign importation, the whole class of farmers would, as such, be annihilated; and, as before observed, the proprietors of the soil must, as well as they could, farm their own estates, draw-

ing from them a scanty and precarious income, which would also be the portion of all those who, in any manner, depend upon the land ; whilst the poor would be reduced to a situation, that humanity shudders to contemplate.

It is these circumstances that render this country different from all others, and superinduce the necessity of a system more artificial than in other states may be requisite. It was, probably, not in the slightest degree anticipated in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, from which the poor-laws date their origin, that, in the course of two centuries, the amount of the rates levied for the relief and maintenance of paupers (including county rates, and some other charges) would ten times exceed the whole revenue of the state at that period : nor was it ever contemplated, either then or long subsequent, that such an enormous burden should fall almost exclusively upon the land ; or that the produce, or profits, derived from the soil, would be able to bear so vast an outgoing. Events, for the greater part, beyond human controul, have produced the former effect, and that, of necessity, led to various enactments from time to time, the object of which was, that the produce of British agriculture should be protected against foreign competition in the home-market, in order that the land might be enabled to defray the charges with which it was burdened. The union with Ireland, and the

subsequent admission of articles, the growth of that part of the United Kingdom, together with the increase of that growth, have, in some measure, made a change in that policy ; and it is, in consequence, probably impossible, generally speaking, for English agricultural produce to maintain the same price that it has done ; but the necessity becomes the greater of protecting it against foreign competition.

It should not be forgotten, that, in addition to the supply from Ireland, which prevents the agricultural produce of England from attaining the same price it otherwise would, payments to a large amount are made out of the English poor-rates, on account of the Irish poor who emigrate hither, and that of these poor-rates the far greater proportion must be paid by the land. There is thus an additional burden and diminished means of meeting it, a strong argument, by the bye, for the introduction of poor-rates into Ireland, in order that the two parts of the United Kingdom may be upon a fair equality ; but this is not exactly within the scope of our work. That there is, however, a greater necessity, in consequence, for the protection of British agriculture in the home-market, against foreign competition, is abundantly evident, otherwise the means of defraying the charges upon the soil, already greatly diminished, would be so much decreased, that

those charges could not be paid at all. It is possible that legislation may do something to lessen the burden of the poor-rates, but it can only be a work of time; no one would argue that individuals who cannot obtain employment ought to be suffered to starve; they must be in some way provided for, until they can procure work, upon the produce of which they may be enabled to subsist, or until they can be comfortably located, if emigration is thought the best policy; and there must, of course, always be a certain number of persons who, from age, infirmity, or disability, are unable to work, or to maintain themselves. It is impossible, therefore, that any material diminution can be effected in the amount of poor-rates, unless by means of gradual measures, and after the lapse of a considerable period. Let it also be recollected that the poor-rates include the county rates, which are paid out of them, and which have of late considerably increased, and which are not likely to be in any respect materially diminished; and that out of the county rates are defrayed the expenses of building and keeping in repair the gaols, the maintenance of prisoners, the sums paid to prosecutors and witnesses at the sessions, a large proportion of the expenses of the militia, and a variety of other charges, involving the judicial, the civil, and, as it were, the military administration of the

respective counties, nearly the whole of which falls upon the land, but which, as the most convenient and least expensive mode of collection, is assessed upon the different parishes, and paid out of the poor-rates.

Let it also be remembered that the poor-rates have been augmented in proportion to the increase and extension of manufactures. The greater the number of hands employed, the larger of course, after a certain period, became the number of paupers who were infirm, or disabled, or unable to obtain employ, the latter class of them being frequently greatly augmented by the fluctuations in the state of manufacturing industry, occasioned by changes of fashion, by new regulations in foreign countries, or by a diminution of demands from whatever cause it might arise, and especially by the continual introduction of new and improved machinery, as a substitute for manual labour. In this way the progress and prosperity of manufactures have been the cause of throwing additional burdens upon the land, in the shape of increased poor-rates. It is, therefore, in this point of view, of essential importance to the manufacturers themselves, that the land should not be disabled from defraying the charges imposed upon it. It is true that many of the operative manufacturers gain settlements in the places to which they remove to be employed in.

their work, but they form a comparatively small proportion of the whole ; the greater part of them, when disabled from obtaining a subsistence in those situations, being removed to the agricultural parishes from whence they originally came, and where the manufacturers, who have had the benefit of their previous labour, then contribute nothing to their support, their whole subsistence being provided for at the expense of the land.

It is obvious, therefore, that the whole system, however artificial it may be, involving as it does in its combined operation the relative position of the different classes, must go on, or fall together as a whole : one class cannot be largely benefited to the great injury of another, without involving all in ruin. The prosperity of one cannot be founded upon the adverse state of the other, but both must share the same fate. There is no additional foreign commerce by any possibility available, that can supply the loss of, or any serious diminution in, the home-trade. Were the manufacturers subjected to the same burdens as the agriculturists, they must, to compensate themselves, charge so high an additional price for the articles they fabricate, that they would be entirely driven out of the foreign markets ; but either this must be the case, or they must pay some share of the burdens in another shape, namely, that of an increased price of the necessities of life, or in

other words, a price greater than that at which some of them might be obtained by means of foreign importation. There is no other alternative; either the agriculturist must be enabled to obtain a price for his produce sufficient to give him a fair profit, and pay a fair rent, after defraying the charges which devolve upon him for the support of the government and the state, for the administration of justice, for the maintenance of his own poor, and for the subsistence of the paupers sent to him from manufacturing towns, or he fails; and his failure would ere long draw with it that of the manufacturer, who could not go on after the loss of the home-trade.

It is, in fact, the home-market which supports both, and at the same time keeps up the commerce of the country; what but for that would become of the trade of the foreign importer? he must of course rely upon that market either directly or indirectly, for the greater part of his returns, or otherwise the balance must be decidedly against him. And let it be recollected that whatever persons employed, either by the commercial, the professional, or any other classes of society, fall into decay and distress, a large proportion of them must be supported out of the poor-rates, which, as before repeatedly observed, fall for the greater part upon the land. It is not, therefore, in reality true, that the manufacturing,

the commercial, or trading classes, pay a higher price for agricultural produce than is fairly and justly due; because the amount of that price beyond that at which similar articles could be obtained by means of foreign importation, is less than what they must otherwise pay in a more onerous and vexatious shape, were that price not given. The manufacturers have not only this boon, but they are also protected by means of import duties, against foreign competition in the home-market. How stands the case with the agriculturists? they have no boon in the first instance, but have to bear all the burdens; they cannot turn their capital to advantage several times in the course of the year; they cannot (because they are not permitted) make an additional profit by means of any great rise in prices; their produce only comes at stated times, and its plenty or scarcity are dependent upon the state of the weather, upon circumstances beyond all human control; they cannot augment its quantity to meet a pressing urgency of demand; they must take things pretty much as they are, and must trust to the bounty of Providence and to time, for the gradual success of any measures they adopt with a view to any ultimate increase. In the mean time a large portion of their capital is sunk, and cannot without great difficulty and considerable delay be realized; whilst, from the

slowness of their return, the creation of additional capital out of the savings of profits is rather to be hoped for than expected. The manufacturers, on the other hand, though they too are, of course, compelled to risk a portion of their capital, yet, from their quick returns, and often-repeated profits in the course of the year, they have, generally speaking, the means and the opportunity of largely increasing their capital as they proceed, a fact which is sufficiently proved by the great and rapid extension of many manufacturing establishments, and the immense fortunes accumulated by some of their proprietors.

The agriculturist, deprived of these advantages, can only have an equivalent in the shape of proportionate protecting duties, and adequate prices for his produce. It is not merely a calculation of what will be a sufficient protection for him as a grower or producer, that will be of any avail ; but to be a real safeguard, the computation must also include what he is compelled to pay in the shape of tithes, taxes, and rates ; what he is necessarily called upon to disburse for the maintenance of his station in society, and the due execution of the public duties imposed upon him, a station and duties inseparably connected with the welfare of the community ; and the nature of the situation in which he is placed, in being, from the nature of the articles in which he deals, prevented from taking

advantage of any greatly increased prices in the home-market, and being altogether shut out from every foreign market. Unless protection and price are calculated upon data including all these considerations, it is evident that he cannot be sufficiently protected, not merely against probable, but against actual and positive loss.

Nor is there any thing in this more anomalous, or more at variance with sound policy, than in the rate of protection afforded to the manufacturers, that being, in its various instances, calculated upon data, so as to produce the result, that they should not be undersold or driven out of the home-market by foreign competition ; or in other words, that, taking into consideration all the circumstances of their situation, they should, in that market, be enabled to obtain a remunerating or profit price. And what can be fairer than that the agriculturists should have a similar advantage, or rather a like measure of justice and policy ? But it being clearly established that the same rate per cent., as in the case of any of the manufacturers, will not be a sufficient protection for them, in consequence of their having greater burdens to support, heavier charges to defray, and larger disbursements to make, whilst they are precluded from the same means of increasing their profits, or their capital ; it follows, of course, that to be a real protection, or, indeed, substantively, any at all, it must be a rate equiva-

lent to what will also enable them, in the home-market, to obtain a remunerating or profit price.

It makes no difference in the argument to say that, in the latter case, rent is included, and in the former, not; rent, of course, must be one of the considerations involved in the upholding and maintenance of the community, and of the relative position of its different classes; nor would any capitalist think it worth his while to purchase land, if he could obtain from it no rent. But in both cases the question comes pretty nearly to the same point; the manufacturer, with reference to profit, calculates the interest of money sunk in buildings and machinery, and whether he purchases the ground on which he builds, or pays ground-rent for it, no practical alteration takes place in the computation, as in the former case he still reckons the interest of capital sunk. The farmer, in like manner, who cultivates his own land, of course with reference to profit, calculates the interest of capital sunk in its purchase, in the buildings upon it, and in its improvement, with a view to increase its produce. In both these instances the approximation to rent is so close, that the difference is only in name:—the proprietor of the land receives interest for the capital laid out in its purchase, in the shape of rent, and the manufacturer, merchant, or trader, only estimates his profit after placing to account on the other side the interest of capital

sunk in buildings and machinery, in offices, and requisite accommodation for carrying on business : he receives, therefore, interest for his capital equally with the landholder, only in a different way. Some, indeed, only estimate profit after deducting interest, not merely for money sunk, but for the whole capital employed ; and this, of course, makes a most important difference, it being well known that land will not, in general, pay more than a low rate of interest for the money invested in its purchase ; and that to make it produce a profit, additional capital must be laid out.

The manufacturer, the merchant, or the trader, takes credit in his books for the interest of capital sunk, and afterwards calculates his profit at the end of the year ; but that profit may be, and frequently is, an accumulation of profits, gained by turning his whole capital, or a considerable proportion of it, several times in the course of that period, and thus he may realize a large per centage per annum upon the money he has laid out, and, as it were, reinvested. The landed proprietor, on the other hand, can only receive an annual interest for his capital laid out, in the shape of rent ; whilst the farmer, who rents ground, can only turn his capital once a year, and must be content with the profit which he can in this way derive from it. The latter classes are, therefore, obviously, in this point of view, placed in a

worse situation than the former ; the only counterbalance is,—that they have a more permanent security for the continuance of their incomes, than the precarious nature of the resources of commerce, manufactures, or trade, will allow the former to possess. But let it not be forgotten, that the value and permanence of this security depends altogether upon the prices which can be obtained for the produce of the soil, as, unless they are sufficient to enable the land to pay in the shape of rent, interest for capital invested ; to pay interest for capital sunk in buildings and improvements ; to defray all the public charges with which it is burdened, and to leave, after all these deductions, a profit sufficient for the proper support and maintenance of those who manage and cultivate the soil, it is evident that the manufacturer of agricultural produce would be placed in a much worse situation than any other manufacturer in the empire.

Every one engaged in business, whether manufactures, commerce, or trade, or any professional pursuit, of course only estimates his profit after deducting all that he pays in the shape of rent, taxes, or rates, or on account of any species of public burdens, commutable for money ; and why should not the agriculturist do the same ? If the latter has larger sums to pay on account of public burdens, it may be his misfortune, but it cer-

tainly is not his fault. If the former cannot obtain a price for the commodities in which he deals, commensurate with his unavoidable expenditure, and with interest for his capital sunk or invested, he either sustains a loss, and cannot long continue in that manner to carry on business, or it becomes not worth his while to continue in it, if he can withdraw his money, as he may obtain interest for his capital in another mode without risk or anxiety; but, in either case, those whom he employs in his business suffer, from the loss of those means of subsistence which they derived from that employment; whilst, from the diminution of his income, the returns, and consequently, the profits of those tradesmen with whom he dealt for the necessaries of life, or articles used in his establishment, are proportionably diminished. The case would be precisely the same with the agriculturist, were he unable to obtain those prices for his produce, which would be commensurate with what he is obliged to pay, and with interest for capital. It must be obvious that profit can accrue to neither, until after the deduction of unavoidable outgoings; and whatever may be the amount of those payments, the case still remains the same, as the prices received for articles sold must be proportionate, or no profit can be obtained.

The capitalist who sits idle, and is content with the interest he can obtain for his money when

invested in public or private securities, has, of course, no profit to expect; but he who employs his money in agriculture, in commerce, in trade, or in any species of business, did he not calculate upon obtaining a profit considerably beyond the mere interest of money, would scarcely be induced to incur the risk, which must always, more or less, attend every species of traffic or speculation. It is, therefore, a fair and legitimate object with every one who invests his capital in this way, to look for an adequate profit; and it is only where there is, or appears to be, a reasonable prospect of obtaining it, that, generally speaking, any persons will be induced to embark their money; though it is unfortunately too true that appearances are frequently very deceitful, and that much money has been parted with, never to return in any shape into the hands of its former owners, upon the faith of brilliant and glittering schemes, which have turned out to be "like the baseless fabric of a vision," and have left not "a wreck behind." Still, however, the same principle or desire operated with those who thus subscribed away their money, namely, to obtain a rate of profit higher than the mere interest of capital; and the same motive will, of course, continue to operate, whilst any portion of capital remains unemployed. Successful speculations may, perhaps, sometimes lead to others that are unfortunate;

but it is to that adventurous spirit which has led to numberless important, and, in many instances, fortunate enterprises, that England is so much and so greatly indebted for her vast prosperity and opulence. Some have succeeded, others failed; but that the balance is immediately in favour of the British empire, no one can for a moment doubt.

That a desire for profit beyond the mere interest of money, and the hope of obtaining it, are the main springs of all commercial undertakings of speculation and traffic, of whatever nature, is equally obvious. Mere interest, derived from the most eligible securities without risk, is so comparatively trifling, that unless the capital is considerable, the income derived from it is but slender. Thus the smaller capitalist must either employ his money in trade or in farming, or be content with an income barely sufficient for his support, and totally inadequate to the maintenance of a numerous family, unless he does what, in case he has children, would be destructive of their interests, namely, the investing his capital in the purchase of a life-annuity. Many indeed are in the possession of sums which can only be rendered available for the efficient purposes of subsistence by employing them in business, or the occupation of land, they being totally inadequate to produce in any other way an income sufficient for support. It is of great importance to the state, that these

individuals should have a ready means of so investing their capital ; and a worse public misfortune could not happen than the ruin and annihilation of these small capitalists, who form so large a proportion of the middle and useful classes of the community. This, however, must in a great degree be accomplished, were any measures to be carried into effect involving in their operation a great depreciation in the value of agricultural produce. The farmers possessed only of small capitals would be the first to sink under its pressure, and would be immediately followed in their downward career by a great number of tradesmen and shopkeepers in provincial towns, who are similarly circumstanced, and who depend upon the farmers for the greater part of their incomes. The limited capitals of both classes would be sacrificed, and no subsequent state of circumstances could again raise them to their former level, their means and their substance being entirely gone.

That those possessed of a larger share of money must follow, would be only repeating what has been previously observed ; but *their* retrograde progress might, by timely measures, be checked, and their ruin averted—only, however, by retracing the steps which had so far led to a great evil. Those, however, who had already suffered, not being able, from their limited means, to wait

for more favorable times, would have already sunk, nor could any public measure operate again to raise them, or to place them once more in that situation from which they had been driven. The loss of these links in the chain of society, which, however less brilliant, are not the less important, would leave a chasm that could not be easily filled up. In England, where all classes, except that of paupers, or some others closely approximating to pauperism, execute public duties of importance to the community, nothing is more essential to the welfare, the good order and tranquillity of the state, than that all should, as far as possible, be upheld in their relative positions. To have jurymen, parish officers, constables, &c., is not of less moment than to have judges and magistrates. The public services of the upper ranks are highly and eminently useful; but those of the middle, and of many rather below the middle classes, are not less so. The system has grown up with the growth and increase of the free institutions, the wealth and prosperity of the country, and has strengthened with their strength. And most fatal to the empire would be any measure, through the effect of which that system would be broken asunder, destroyed, or even greatly impaired.

Many of those who live constantly in the metropolis, or who seldom visit the country, are apt to form an erroneous idea of the real state of affairs

in the latter ; were they to witness, or become acquainted with the embarrassment and distress which are caused by any material, and frequently by apparently a trifling, fall in the prices of agricultural produce, their opinions would be greatly altered. They would then be convinced how dangerous it is to tamper with the existing system ; and how great an amount of evil and calamity may be produced in a very short time, through the operation of measures which they might have previously imagined to be perfectly innocent, or of considerable utility. It is not only the farmer, but, as already observed, it is others who also suffer, and especially the agricultural labourers, whose wages are so reduced, through the depreciation in the value of farming produce, that they can scarcely subsist, and many, of necessity, sink into the most abject pauperism. This is a state of things not only most undesirable, but frightfully and alarmingly mischievous, as it rapidly tends to demoralize all the lower classes of the country population. It may be said that, from the great increase of population, the supply of labour exceeds the demand ; or that if higher wages were given to the farming labourer, or the operative manufacturer, corn must be sold at a still greater price, and the manufacturer would be driven out of the foreign market : this, or some of it, may be partly true ; but it is, at the same time, a truth that ought never

to be lost sight of, that unless the working classes of the community are enabled, by means of their labour, comfortably to subsist, the wealth and prosperity of the empire are shadows, and not realities; the basis must be firm and secure, or the superstructure reared upon it becomes tottering and unsafe.

All experience proves that there cannot be a more unwise or destructive policy than that which tends to place the workman, or the labourer, in a situation only, as it were, one degree in the scale removed from starvation. It not only destroys every feeling of independence and respectability, but it operates as a temptation to crime, and too frequently he proceeds from the less to greater offences, till the amount in the aggregate throughout the country becomes fearfully alarming, and, unhappily, a generation growing up is presented to view who are more demoralized than their parents. It is utterly impossible for such a state of things to be consistent with a sound and healthful condition of society; on the contrary, it cannot fail to show that there is something wrong, some disorder that requires a remedy. As to the nature of the remedy, there may be various differences of opinion; but wherever, in any country, there are only comparatively a few who possess wealth or capital, whilst the greater number are steeped to the lips in poverty, privation, and misery, it is most assur-

edly true that such a state of society cannot long exist. And every measure tends to this which operates materially to lower the wages of the working classes, or to force down into poverty great numbers of other ranks who had previously been in the enjoyment of the comforts of life, or in the possession of comparative ease or affluence. The greatest caution is, therefore, requisite in assailing or attempting to alter an existing system, lest the evil that is thus produced should greatly overbalance any advantage that can be derived from the change.

It frequently happens that what appears to be best in theory, is the worst, or at least highly injurious, in practice ; and the greatest error into which some political economists have fallen, has been that of leaving out of their consideration that their theories, to be effective, must operate not by means of machinery, but upon men in a state of society, and upon all their complicated and interwoven interests. It is comparatively easy to form a beautiful and captivating theory, but most difficult to frame one founded upon the various bearings of a multitude of facts, and upon the due relation and connection of the different orders of society ; and thus some choose the less laborious task ; or, perhaps, have not the means of acquiring the facts which might render their theories more suitable to the actual situation of mankind, or of any

portion of it in any given community. The danger, however, does not so much arise from this quarter, as from statesmen and legislators being too easily led captive by beautiful and apparently promising schemes, but which are, unfortunately, at variance with experience, with sober reality, and sound practical policy. As in medical practice it is frequently found that what agrees with one constitution is injurious to another, so in public policy it is often proved that what is salutary in one state, is prejudicial in another ; and simply because national characters, habits, prejudices, opinions, and interests, differ as much as one human constitution does, in many instances, from another.

The British empire, in many respects, stands, as it were, aloof, towering above all others ; and the greatest care and caution are requisite in the framing of measures affecting the interests of its different classes, lest the basis of that wealth and prosperity, to which it so greatly owes its high station, should be sapped and undermined. And the greater circumspection is demanded, not only on account of the complication and intimate connection and mutual dependence of those interests, but also of the support derived from that situation of affairs to the church, the magistracy, the administration of justice, the revenue, and the very sinews and strength of the state. Nearly the whole of this support, involving, as it does, the

very existence of the empire as a great, a prosperous, and a powerful state, is derived exclusively from the agriculture of the country, and must be augmented or decreased in proportion as that flourishes or decays. There is no other source from which the same support could be derived; there is no other sufficient prop for the national edifice, than the main one of agriculture. It is not intended to depreciate the great resources of commerce, of manufactures, or trade; but they do not, nor can they, uphold the establishments of the state in the same way: on the contrary, the greater part of their own support must, of necessity, be derived from the agriculture of the country, or, in other words, from the home trade. It is true that the support, in this respect, is mutual; but this only makes the argument the stronger for maintaining them in their respective positions, and not attempting to benefit one class at the expense of another, which would ultimately be highly injurious to all.

They all stand in the relation of producers (including imported articles) and consumers; but there is this marked and striking peculiarity attending the agricultural classes, that they also perform the greater part of the vital functions of the state, which, but for them, must, to a considerable extent, become inert or paralyzed; and that the largest share of the pecuniary burdens, arising from

the administration of the internal polity of the empire, falls upon them to defray. They are thus forced into a situation different from that of others, and which absolutely requires that they should have, in some way or other, the means placed at their disposal of executing those functions, and of discharging those pecuniary burdens. These means can only be artificial, that is to say, they cannot be derived from the natural soil, or its natural produce; they can only be given by means of imparting an artificial value to the latter, which proportionably transfuses itself into the former. And this artificial value can only be established by means of duties upon the importation of foreign produce. In like manner an artificial value is given to manufactured goods by a similar mode; and the same may be said of commodities imported: whilst the produce of the revenue, out of which the dividends to the public creditor, and the interest on exchequer bills, must be paid, is calculated either directly or indirectly upon the data afforded by these artificial resources. Thus the whole system becomes artificial, and one part of the machinery cannot be clogged without more or less affecting all the rest. It is, undoubtedly, true, that this system can only be pushed to a certain extent, otherwise there would not be a sufficient reciprocity with other nations, to admit of the carrying on a competent foreign commerce; but it is equally clear, that to enable the state to

carry on its functions, to support and maintain its rank, its dignity, and its power, and also to keep up the home-trade, for the decay of which no foreign commerce could compensate—it is essentially necessary to uphold that system in all its bearings.

Were it not so, all the resources which depend upon that artificiality (if such a word may be allowed) would fail ; and all the revenue, the rates and duties and incomes derived from them, would no longer be realized. There is no subject of the empire who is not, more or less, interested in the maintenance of this system, however he may, for a time, suppose that he is not ; either he directly depends upon it, as in the case of the landholder and farmer, or indirectly, either altogether, or in various degrees, that is to say, for a larger or smaller proportion of his income, as in the case of the shopkeeper, the trader, the manufacturer, the merchant, the fundholder, the holder of public or private securities, the artist, the professional man, &c., down to the pauper, who, though he has no income, yet depends for his daily sustenance upon the continuance of the same system, but for which, the money that he pays for his food could not be forthcoming. Thus it is the true interest of all classes, from the highest to the very lowest, that this system should be upheld and maintained. But for this system, the manufactures of the empire could never have flourished, or prospered, or

been carried on to any extent worth naming : they were, in the first instance, protected by heavy duties upon the import of similar articles of foreign make, by which means the British manufacturers had very nearly a monopoly in the home-market ; nor could they, without that protection, have invested capital in such establishments with any chance of profit ; as, but for that, they must have been undersold on the domestic marts by the foreigner. By means of the large profits they have thus accumulated, they have been enabled to set in motion vast, ingenious, and complex, and continually improving machinery, through the aid of which they are enabled to sell their goods at a much lower rate than heretofore ; and thus they can afford to give up, as no longer necessary, a portion of the protection which had previously sustained them. It is only, however, a portion of the protection that is parted with : it is still found to be absolutely necessary that they should continue to be protected by the same means, namely, by duties upon foreign import, the only change being that those duties are lessened in amount.

Precisely the same reasons operated and still continue for the protection by similar means of the agriculturists, with the additional ones, that they were, and are still, even to a yet larger amount, called upon to pay very considerable sums every year for the purposes of the state, which are not,

nor ever were charged upon the manufacturers ; and that they could not, nor can they, by any possibility, sell the articles of their produce at a profit in any foreign market, which could be and is done to a great extent by the manufacturers. It is clear, therefore, that to enable the agriculturists to pay the sums which are thus charged upon them, and to compensate them for their being, by circumstances over which they have no control, shut out from every foreign market, and also for their inability to profit by a high price in the home market, as articles of goods of foreign produce must then be unavoidably admitted, they must have a higher degree of protection by means of a higher rate of duty upon the import of foreign produce. They cannot make the disbursements required of them for public purposes, and at the same time pay for requisite labour, and live according to their respective stations, without adequate returns, and these returns are only to be obtained through the medium of the prices of their produce. But it is impossible for them to obtain adequate prices, unless they are enabled to do so by means of sufficient protecting duties upon the import of the produce of foreign soils.

The manufacturers in like manner could not obtain the prices which are essential to their profits and their welfare, but for the protection afforded them by the duties on foreign import ; and

if it be alleged that they could sell their articles at a lower rate, were the price of corn reduced so that foreign grain might be ordinarily admitted to compete with it, the answer at once is, that in that case they must share in the ruin of all classes of the agriculturists, which would then be inevitable, and that the comparatively few operatives who might still be employed, must have their wages reduced to a still smaller pittance than they have at present. There is no alternative; prices must, to a certain extent, be kept up by means of protecting duties, or the whole system crumbles into dust: it is only through the medium of prices of a certain rate or amount, that the sums can be raised which are requisite for the support of the state, for the maintenance in their various stations of its respective classes, and of its different branches of industry; and these can only be obtained by artificially raising them above what may be called their natural level. That such a system is productive of the most beneficial consequences, is clearly proved by the vast wealth and prosperity attained by the British empire, and the immense amount of capital possessed in various large and small sums, by such numbers of its population, the far greater proportion of which has been derived from accumulated profits, and these could only arise from prices thus artificially raised. Such a system must, of course, have its

limits ; carried to too great an extent, it would prevent a sufficient degree of reciprocity from taking place between this and foreign nations : but if it is not rendered extensive and compact enough to bear all the weight attached to it, the whole fails, and all the advantages are given to foreign nations without any equivalent.

But whatever may be the effect or the operation of such a system in this country, it is clear that it must be persevered in, in order to ensure a continuance of those resources, without which the revenue cannot be made sufficiently productive to defray the national charge, and pay the interest of the public debt, or the requisite establishments be properly supported, or, even in the most economical manner, be kept up or sustained. The only question in sound practical policy is, to what extent, in order to ensure these effects, the system must be kept up, and what arrangements are requisite to make it operate the most advantageously to all parties, and the least inconveniently to any. Were the manufacturer to be burdened in the same way as the agriculturist, the prices he must charge for his articles would destroy his foreign commerce, and, unless protected by much higher duties, also his home-trade. But the agriculturist, being shut out from the foreign market in consequence of the great expenses attending the production of the articles in which he deals,

owing to the burdens imposed upon him, which, instead of being lessened, have increased in amount, has no other mode of being remunerated than by means of being enabled to obtain sufficient prices in the home-market, and this can only be achieved through the operation of the machinery of protecting duties. The charges for public purposes defrayed out of the produce of the land, must either continue to be paid from that source, or be transferred to the revenue; and if the amount of indirect taxation paid by all classes of the agriculturists, and those who chiefly depend upon them, is reduced in the proportion of nine-tenths, from whence is any additional revenue to be derived commensurate with an additional charge of 14,000,000*l.*, or 15,000,000*l.*? Would there not, on the contrary, instead of any possible augmentation, be a defalcation of alarming amount?

It is so clear that the revenue must decrease in proportion to the diminution of the sources from which it is derived, that it would be absurd to attempt to argue the question; and if it be alleged that the deficiency might be supplied by foreign trade, the answer is, that it is impossible. To render any additional commerce in any shape available for the purposes of individual profit or national benefit, there must be consumers for the article imported; and if, instead of this, the number of consumers is greatly diminished, or their

edly true that such a state of society cannot long exist. And every measure tends to this which operates materially to lower the wages of the working classes, or to force down into poverty great numbers of other ranks who had previously been in the enjoyment of the comforts of life, or in the possession of comparative ease or affluence. The greatest caution is, therefore, requisite in assailing or attempting to alter an existing system, lest the evil that is thus produced should greatly overbalance any advantage that can be derived from the change.

It frequently happens that what appears to be best in theory, is the worst, or at least highly injurious, in practice ; and the greatest error into which some political economists have fallen, has been that of leaving out of their consideration that their theories, to be effective, must operate not by means of machinery, but upon men in a state of society, and upon all their complicated and interwoven interests. It is comparatively easy to form a beautiful and captivating theory, but most difficult to frame one founded upon the various bearings of a multitude of facts, and upon the due relation and connection of the different orders of society ; and thus some choose the less laborious task ; or, perhaps, have not the means of acquiring the facts which might render their theories more suitable to the actual situation of mankind, or of any

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a higher rate than others : the landholder receives no more rent for his ground (frequently not so much) than what can be considered as a very moderate interest for his capital invested, or for the amount of capital which his estate is equivalent to or represents ; the tenant or farmer receives a profit of only moderate amount, and certainly, generally speaking, much less than that obtained by the manufacturers or traders, because he cannot like them reproduce the articles in which he deals several times in the course of the year, and thus obtain, not merely one profit, but accumulated profits. They only desire that, after encountering and discharging all the various burdens thrown upon them, they may have left a fair remunerating profit ; and is there or can there be any demand more reasonable ?

Were it possible to discover any other mode of paying the clergy, of defraying the expenses of the administration of justice, &c., and of providing for the poor, the prices of agricultural produce would, of course, be greatly lowered ; but this is well-known to be impracticable. There is no other source from whence the great sums requisite for these outgoings and expenses can be derived, but the land ; and the soil thus burdened must be indemnified in some quarter—but there is no compensation to be found in any except in the home-market, in the shape of the prices obtained there

for agricultural produce. It is evident, therefore, that to enable this system to go on, (and no other can be substituted,) those prices must, over and above what will pay interest for capital and allow a fair profit, also produce a sufficient sum to defray all the public charges before enumerated, and which cannot otherwise be paid. And this most important object can only be accomplished by means of protecting duties upon the importation of foreign produce, the rate and amount of which shall be competent to enable the British agriculturist to obtain prices in the home-market, sufficient for the purpose above stated. Relieve him from the burdens which fall exclusively upon his class, and he will require a much less protection, will be content with a much less price; but this being impossible, the only way in which he can be enabled to discharge and defray those burdens, is by means of a larger share of protection and higher prices.

ON THE CUSTOMS AND PRACTICE AT ENTRY.

This is a subject which is of much greater importance than it may seem to be at first sight, involving, as it does in many cases, the welfare and prosperity of the farmer at his first outset in business, and even frequently his very existence as such,—it often occurring, as mentioned several times in the course of this work under the heads

of different counties, that he is entirely crippled in his means in consequence of the large amount he has to pay on entering upon a farm, and rendered unable afterwards to recover himself, or to carry on his concern, either with spirit, or even with that common attention to favorable opportunities which is so essential to success ; whilst in others these unpleasant effects are altogether avoided, merely by a difference in the practice at entry, which leaves the incoming tenant at liberty to employ his capital in his own way to the best advantage. Were the incomer, who is obliged to submit to a valuation, to obtain even commodities of real value for his money, it would still very frequently operate upon him as a great hardship and inconvenience, as he may thus be compelled to take articles that he does not immediately want, and because the large proportion of his capital thus invested might have been, perhaps, laid out by himself to better profit, and more advantageously with a view to his own interests ; but too often what he thus receives in exchange for his ready cash is either of much less worth (at least to him) than what he has given for it, or it is something of merely presumptive or estimated value, such as workmanship, or labour, or manure laid upon the land, &c., which though of use to him, yet he could have had it done himself at a cheaper rate, whilst he is much inconvenienced by having to

disburse a sum which he can probably very ill spare.

There is no greater source of unpleasantness and inconvenience than that which arises out of the present system as existing in some counties, where the incoming and outgoing tenants are under the necessity of asking favors of, or becoming obligated to, each other, or otherwise the farm, in the mean time, becomes much injured, for want of proper management. Differences are every day occurring in these counties between the incomer and the outgoer, neither, frequently, being willing to ask of, or concede to, the other any favor; both looking warily to their own interests, and often finding them much at variance with each other, neither of them is disposed to part with any advantage to benefit the other: the consequence is, that the farm is neglected, or, a proper course of husbandry not being adopted or continued a long period, is, of necessity, lost before it can be again brought into a fit state of cultivation. This is all avoided in the north of England, and merely by means of the simple expedient that one tenant has nothing to do with the other; the outgoer acts upon his own system, and disposes as he pleases of any part of the property on the farm, except what he is obliged to use upon the premises. Whilst the incomer has nothing to pay for a valuation, no favor to ask of the outgoer, he is

enabled to purchase a sufficient stock wherever he has the best opportunities of making good bargains, and enters the farm completely unincumbered, with the remainder of his capital, left after purchasing his stock, to carry on his business with every prospect of success. They act each independently of the other, without, in the least, crossing each other's views, or jostling their respective interests; and experience proves, most decidedly, not only that this is the best system for the convenience and advantage of both, but that no injury whatever results to the farm from its operation.

Did this work merely refer to a single estate, or even only to one county, these points, in that view, might not be considered of any importance; but the practice, such as it prevails, and such as persons taking farms are compelled to conform to, in many counties in England, becomes, from that very circumstance, of the greatest moment, affecting, as it in fact does, the interests of a whole nation; for it is a truth which will be found rendered manifest in the progress of the following pages, that, in several districts, the land is not half worked, nor the farm more than half stocked; and that this evil, for such it undoubtedly is, and in a national point of view a very serious one, is entirely owing to the effects of the practice at entry, which, as before observed, by depriving the incoming tenant of a large portion of the capital of

which he is in want, absolutely prevents him from afterwards making those exertions, or that outlay, which are essentially requisite, in order to render the farm even moderately productive. These observations are not intended to apply to those individuals who are possessed of large sums of money, or to those who are very poor, as the former may have still plenty left for every purpose that they want it, whilst the latter cannot possibly, under such a practice, enter upon a farm; but they are meant to apply to the moderate capitalist who seeks to obtain a comfortable subsistence for his family and himself by farming; a description of individuals who, whether they employ their capital in agriculture, or any other business, form some of the most useful classes of the community. It is these who suffer from the existing system in the counties where it operates; and they suffer the more, because they cannot afford to part with their capital in the way in which they are compelled, in the first instance, to expend it; they cannot replace it, nor can they recover themselves, because their remaining means will not enable them to take the necessary steps, or pursue the requisite course, by which alone they can make the business they have embarked in profitable or successful.

Nor is this all; because a farmer's being thus disabled from providing for his family, or assisting in putting them in business, they are frequently

compelled to become labourers ; and too often when married, and themselves having families, are obliged to apply to the parish for relief, which, in some cases, perhaps from their relations either being overseers, or having a voice in the direction of parish affairs, is (and that from natural feelings laudable in themselves) too easily granted, and thus the amount of the poor-rates is materially increased, as well as the number of poor. Were the system altered so that the incoming tenant might have the free use of his capital, and be enabled to employ it as best suited his own views and purposes, he would, in general, have the means of rendering his business profitable, and of making some provision for his family ; and it is worthy of remark, that in those counties in the north of England where a contrary system prevails, and where no counteracting cause as to poor-rates exists, arising from manufactures, there the poor-rates are much less than in the midland and southern counties, where the most disadvantageous practice above alluded to, frequently so much deteriorates the soil, and prevents the improvement of agriculture, whilst it manifestly tends to that greatest of all evils, the increase of pauperism. Take, for instance, the county of Northumberland, where the poor-rates amount only to 1s. 3½d.^s per acre, as compared with other counties where the rates are so much higher, and it must at

once be evident that the disproportion can only be owing to the difference of the system acted upon : there is no other cause that can account for it, or, at least, that is sufficient to account for so remarkable a variance.

Numerous instances are continually occurring in the counties where the baneful system alluded to prevails, of farmers being ruined through the sacrifice thus made of a considerable portion of their capital. It is better for a man to make any shift, rather than deprive himself of his capital at the onset, as it is only by means of having at his disposal all the money he can command, that he has any chance of success. No man can manage his business well, or make it turn to advantage, whatever may be its nature, unless he has an adequate capital to commence with ; and were the system in the counties alluded to altered, and assimilated to that acted upon in the north, it is clear, from what has taken place, and what is daily occurring, that a farmer, with a moderate capital, might, in the former as in the latter, not merely do well himself, and comfortably support and provide for his family, but also greatly improve and render more fertile the land which he occupies : and why should not this be the case ? Every kind of business is changed, compared with what it was ; and why should agriculture stand still ? Why should not its practice and customs be accommodated to

the more modern and much better system; which, in other cases, has been introduced, and found beneficial; and which, with reference to agriculture in the north of England and in Scotland, has been found so eminently advantageous? The experiment has thus been tried, and found admirably to succeed; the only wonder is, that it has not yet been extended throughout England: this, perhaps, may be, in some measure, accounted for, from the circumstance that the prevailing customs and practices in different counties, were, to a great extent, shrouded in obscurity; and that from their not being sufficiently known, their effects were not placed in any obvious point of view.

Surely, however, no exertion ought to be wanting on behalf of agriculture, especially at a moment like the present; when it has so much to contend with, when it has so many difficulties to encounter: on the contrary, every measure ought to be adopted that can, in the least, tend to advance or facilitate its progress. Nor is it alone agriculture, but every branch of trade, that is, more or less, affected; it is impossible that business of any kind can flourish so well in those districts where the farmers are deprived of the greater part of their capital, and obliged to go on upon credit, as where they have the means of laying out ready money. This is proved by every day's experience; and it is clear that the traders and shop-

keepers in these districts are as much interested, as any one can be, in endeavouring to obtain a change of system. The commercial interest in London, and elsewhere, may be confidently appealed to with regard to the state of trade in Kent, in Sussex, and the adjoining counties. They will uniformly admit that it is very bad; and there is no doubt whatever that this is entirely owing to the crippled and embarrassed state of the farmers, arising from the injurious system now, and for a long time past, acted upon in those districts. There, undoubtedly, may be difficulties to overcome in effecting a change, but they are not insuperable; on the contrary, were exertions properly made, there is no doubt that the system might be most advantageously altered. Much may, in some instances, rest with the landlords; but there can be no question that their interests would be much benefited by the increased produce and value of their estates, were their tenants to enter upon the occupation of farms with the free use of their capitals, and with an interest in those farms for a certain term, that they might be enabled to compensate themselves for the outlay of money in improvements, instead of, as at present, not having sufficient capital left even properly to stock their farms, or to carry into effect a good system of cultivation; whilst, in many instances, the want of leases prevents any improvements from being attempted.

But the system under which an incoming tenant is deprived of a large proportion of his capital is much worse than the not granting leases, as the former prevents not merely improvement, but the actual stocking of the land in the common and ordinary mode of farming, beyond, in many instances, little more than half the amount of what it is capable of supporting. Thus the supplies which that soil might otherwise afford, are greatly diminished, as well as the profit that might be derived from them ; and all kinds of business, from the absence of those supplies, and the want of the employment, and circulation of that profit, are, more or less, crippled, compared with what they might be under the operation of a different system. The money that is paid to the outgoing tenant is, in general, indeed in the great majority of instances, taken away (at least what is left of it after paying rent and debts) from the district where he held his farm, and, consequently, does not circulate there ; were it to remain in the possession of the incomer, who has fixed his residence for a certain time within that district, it would circulate in various directions, and through various channels, evidently for the benefit of all descriptions of trade. It is the want of this circulation which adds to the evil ; the incomer having been compelled to part with the greater proportion of his capital, is obliged to resort to credit, some-

times long credit, and even with the aid of that frequently finds it difficult, to use a familiar phrase, to keep his head above water ; and if he fails, as is too often the case, through the very circumstance of his capital being so lamentably diminished, all those with whom he deals of course, more or less, suffer.

That this is a true picture of what, in many counties, actually and repeatedly takes place, the melancholy experience of a number of individuals can abundantly testify. It is continually going on ; but in proportion to the depression or prosperity of agriculture it is, of course, in a greater or less degree felt. It thus materially affects the property, the comforts, and even the means of subsistence, of numerous classes of individuals. What is a farmer in some of the southern counties, who, before he entered upon his farm, was possessed of from 1000*l.* to 1200*l.*? From the effects of the valuation system his capital is so reduced, that he must work almost like a slave, in order that his family and himself may subsist after paying all his outgoings, and even then he frequently cannot, to apply another trite phrase, make both ends meet. On the contrary, he too often goes backward instead of forward ; he falls into arrear, becomes embarrassed with debts, and at length is forced to give place to another, who only goes through the same round ; whilst, having gained a settlement in the

parish, it not unfrequently happens that both he and his whole family ultimately become chargeable to the poor-rates, and thus an additional burden is thrown upon the land. Should he be enabled to struggle on for a longer period, till his family grow up, still he can save nothing, as before observed ; his family are, probably, obliged to betake themselves to mere labour, and finally become chargeable in the same manner upon the poor-rates, but with a greater burden.

These cases are, by no means, fictitious or supposed ; they have, unhappily, been realized and exemplified in numerous instances ; and, as before remarked, they serve to account for the great disproportion in the amount of the poor-rates between those counties where such a system prevails, and others where the practice is of an opposite nature, and which, indeed, cannot be otherwise accounted for in those districts where manufactures are not carried on to any great extent. How is it that the system of roundsmen, as they are called, has been introduced in several of the southern and midland counties ? through the effects of this very practice here complained of, farmers found themselves crippled in their means, and through a sort of juggle with the poor-laws, found out a mode of relieving themselves from the immediate payment of a considerable proportion of what was due by them for labour, by throwing the labourers upon the

poor-rates for a part of their subsistence; a system, however, which only ultimately brings back upon themselves an additional burden, or at least certainly adds to the burden already thrown upon the whole land of the parish, of which they must pay their proportion. No such system exists in the northern counties; the farmers have no need of it—they have their whole capital to employ in their business—they pay their labourers, and every thing goes on in its proper course.

Thus it is, as has been already intimated in another section of this Introduction, that a farmer in the north can enter upon a farm with less capital than one can venture to do in the south, (the land being of similar extent,) and yet have more to carry on business with, and employ to profit and advantage, than the southern farmer; whilst he is more disposed personally to labour, and to do many things to which a larger capitalist would not condescend, but which tend much to increase his profits: he has also much better means of providing for his family, and of regularly paying his labourers; and thus the poor-rates are kept down, and the evil of pauperism prevented from increasing. There is, perhaps, no greater mischief than that which arises from destroying the independent feelings of the labourer, and making it a part of a regular system to render his daily bread not dependent upon his labour, but upon the re-

ceipt of alms, the order to work being added as a condition. It completely annihilates all those moral feelings which before constituted his respectability; he becomes careless and indifferent as to his fate and his conduct; is too easily led by a slight temptation to the commission of offences which promise a little temporary advantage, and then rapidly descends in the downward career, till, too frequently, he becomes a hardened criminal, insensible alike to the laws of his God and of his country. And should he, in the early stage of his progress, be committed to a public prison, or be for any considerable period the inmate of a gaol; unhappily, in too many instances, instead of being in the slightest degree reformed, he becomes a much greater adept in crime, much more indifferent as to the consequences of its commission, much more callous with regard to any feelings of religion, morality, or integrity. This may be considered a melancholy view, but it is still more melancholy that, from the united experience and information of all those who have any knowledge of the subject, it is unfortunately too true. What has been for some time past, and especially recently, a more prominent or anxious object of consideration than the increase of crime, which, from its magnitude, has forced itself upon the public attention? And what remedies are proposed? none, absolutely none! Reformation is given up

as hopeless, and all that remains is to send offenders out of the country to some distant clime; where, if they do not reform themselves, they will, at least, be prevented from corrupting others at home.

It is true that the game laws may have been, as often, especially of late, alleged, a fruitful source of crimes; but they have been in full practical operation for a long period, and the great increase of crime is comparatively of recent date. There must, therefore, be some other cause co-operating to produce so frightful an evil; and there is nothing presents itself but that demoralized state of the lower classes, which arises not merely from distress, (because, if only temporary, the effect will only be for a time,) but from hopeless penury, from that condition of privation and degradation to which, in too many counties, they are reduced, without the slightest prospect of a change for the better; on the contrary, the chain being only riveted on them the faster, and in a more galling manner. It is this which festers and rankles in the mind, and produces that disposition to set at defiance law, morality, and order; sometimes with much precaution and stratagem, in order to avoid, if possible, the penalties that await such conduct, but too frequently with lawless daring, reckless of all consequences. Let these men have a clear way open before them of obtaining a subsistence honestly for their families and them;

selves, by means of their labour, and the far greater proportion of them will work hard, will rejoice that they have thus the means of living, as it were, independently and respectably; and many of them will even submit to some privations to be enabled to save a trifle, with the view that the accumulation of these trifling savings may, in the course of years, afford some provision for declining life and exhausted strength. That this feeling operates to a very considerable, to a very great extent, amongst the labouring classes, is decidedly proved by the large sums which are annually deposited at interest in the Savings Banks, composed, as it is, of the small savings of an almost innumerable number of contributors.

It may be said, perhaps, that it is too much to attribute so great an amount of evil to such a cause, and there may be, undoubtedly, several causes that combine to produce it; but it is clear that whatever tends to engender much distress amongst the labouring classes, and especially to excite amongst them a feeling of despair, as to any probable termination of that distress, tends decidedly and most rapidly to create that demoralization, and that proneness to crime which has been just noticed. It may also be alleged that it is not fair to attribute the tampering with the poor-laws, which has obviously so pernicious an effect upon the labouring classes, to the cus-

toms and practice adopted and acted upon in several counties with regard to the entering upon farms. It is certainly not meant to be argued that the one follows the other precisely, like cause and effect; but it is clear that the more a farmer is embarrassed, and the less means he has at his command to make his requisite outlays, the more disposed he will be to catch at any expedient that promises, or seems to promise him any temporary relief; and there appears every reason to believe that increased poor-rates having naturally followed a season of great pressure; and those farmers whom we have just alluded to, feeling it, from the circumstances of their situation, much more intensely than others, they had recourse to the system of roundsmen, to shift off from themselves, at least for a time, a burden which they found very hard to bear. There is the more reason to believe that this most pernicious and injurious system originated in this way, as there are no traces of it to be found in the northern counties, where farmers can enter upon the occupation of their land without being crippled in their means, and rendered unable afterwards to recover themselves, through having to pay a heavy valuation.

But whatever may have been the origin of the system, there can be no question as to its injurious effects, nor any doubt as to the multifarious evils

that arise from an increase of pauperism, or from the breaking down and destroying those feelings of independence and respectability, without which there is no possible security for the good conduct of the labouring classes. It is, therefore, of the greatest, the most essential importance, that every effort should be made to bring about a change in customs and practices, which tend, if it were only even in a remote degree, to produce consequences of so calamitous a nature. There certainly may be a difficulty in effecting such a change, but however great it may be, the value of the object to be attained is far, very far beyond any estimate that can be formed of the obstacles that stand in the way of its accomplishment. To bring about such a change requires, of course, the co-operation and aid of the landholders, but once effected, and their tenants being placed upon the same footing with the farmers in the north, having also a lease for a term that would give them a sufficient interest in the improvement of the soil, there is no doubt whatever that it would rapidly tend, in the course of its working and operation, to increase the value of the land, by putting it in a much more improved state of cultivation, and considerably augmenting its produce. There is, therefore, a clear gain in prospect and no loss, even reckoning upon the narrowest principles; but in other respects, and looking at the subject with more

enlarged views, the gain might be almost incalculable. Substitute by degrees a population of moral and industrious habits, from demoralizing, idle, and vicious, and the change is so obviously desirable, that every one would wish for it; but that being the case, it is surely worth while to take a little or even a great deal of trouble to make some, or even many, sacrifices, to attain an object so highly to be prized.

It is surely worth while even to try the experiment, because, in some instances, any change almost that is made must be for the better; and it is at all events obvious that one which operates to put more money in circulation, in any given district, must be for the advantage of that district; and that the larger the number of districts in the neighbourhood of each other in which this takes place, the advantage is still greater in each. It is equally evident that the more money there is in circulation, the better chance there is for the poorer classes of employment, and of that kind of employment which will enable them to subsist by means of their labour: this, therefore, would be a great step towards relieving them from the degrading thralldom in which, in many quarters, they are now held. And experience has proved it to be true, that if they can subsist in tolerable comfort by their labour and industry, the far greater proportion of them are disposed to be

content with their station, merely endeavouring to take advantage of every opportunity that presents itself, or that seems to offer, to do that which every man is more or less anxious to do, namely, to better their situation. The advantages, therefore, to be gained are obviously very great, not merely as a question of simple profit and loss, but in a national and moral point of view, in which no outlay can be more amply repaid than that which has for its object to place numerous classes of the population in a state of comfort and moderate enjoyment. On the other hand, there is no surer way of increasing crimes, and multiplying offences, than in sinking and degrading large bodies of the people into pauperism,—no more certain method of still further augmenting that enormous evil, than by placing them in such a situation, that they have no prospect of bettering themselves.

There is no measure that is more worthy of the attention of noblemen and gentlemen who are the proprietors of land,—none that is better calculated amply to repay them for all their efforts and exertions, than the making arrangements with reference to the letting of their farms, by means of which their tenants may have a sufficient interest in the soil, to authorize prudent men to make a competent outlay for its proper cultivation and permanent improvement, and through which men

of moderate capital, who are more dependent upon their own personal exertions than those possessed of affluence, may be enabled to enter upon farms without having to pay a heavy valuation, and may thus have the means of properly stocking the land, of entering at once with spirit upon the management of their business, and of carrying it on without embarrassment or incumbrance (unless, of course, unforeseen events intervene), till they can realize a return of their capital invested, and thus be enabled to go on in the same way with every reasonable prospect of success. The customs and practices which are opposed to this desideratum may, in some cases, be sanctioned or upheld by long usage, or strongly supported by prejudice; but whatever may be their standing, (though none of them have any pretensions to antiquity) or whatever opinions may be arrayed in their favor, the evil they produce is unquestionable, and through the operation of various auxiliary causes, that evil has, of late years, been greatly augmented. It has been repeatedly and justly observed, that it is of the most essential importance to adjust the political and civil machinery of a state, so as to render it equal to the additional impetus, strength, and operative effect required by the change produced by time. This is most strongly, and in a most marked manner, applicable to agriculture, upon which the pros-

perity and importance of the empire so mainly depend. It has been already attempted to be proved that agriculture cannot part with remunerating prices, without being utterly ruined, and involving in its fall the empire itself; as, unless it is in this manner sufficiently protected, and those concerned in it enabled to employ their capital profitably, it is evident that through their losses and ruin trade and commerce would, in all parts of the British dominions, be lamentably deficient in returns; and this must be the more clear to every one engaged in business, from what is now experienced, through the embarrassed state of the farmers in several counties, arising from other causes, namely, those just enumerated. But agriculture may, as it were, right itself, place itself upon more vantage ground, by bettering the situation and increasing the comforts of the middle and lower classes dependent upon it, through the medium of more equitable arrangements of tenancy; and thus by augmenting the produce of the soil, afford additional means of subsistence and profit to numerous classes of the community, and greatly enhance the general wealth and prosperity of the state.

That improvement should go on progressively and frequently by rapid strides in every other branch of industry, and stand still or retrograde in agriculture, would be an anomaly that can

scarcely be patiently contemplated. Some landholders may, perhaps, look at this subject with indifference whilst they can receive regularly their rents ; but there are, doubtless, many others of a different character, who would rejoice in being instrumental in promoting the comfort and welfare of their fellow-creatures, especially of their tenants and dependents. And those (if there are any such) who are not disposed to take any trouble or be at any expense to effect so desirable an object, may be assured with the utmost certainty, that a system which tends greatly to augment pauperism, and frightfully increase crime, cannot long go on with profit or satisfaction to themselves, even according to the narrow view which, upon this supposition, they may be disposed to take of it: because every addition to pauperism and to crime tending immediately to increase the burdens upon the land ; that having, as before shown, to maintain the poor, and pay all the expenses of the ordinary provincial administration of justice, it of course follows, that the more pauperism and crime are increased, the greater must be the outgoings from the sum received for the produce of the soil ; and it is evident, especially under present circumstances, that there is a point, and that, unfortunately, almost reached, beyond which those burdens cannot be increased, without rendering it impossible for any farmer to pay rent

for the land he occupies (unless a greatly diminished one), and at the same time obtain the necessities of life for his family and himself, after the payment of such greatly enhanced demand.

It is therefore the interest, the mere common interest, in the most confined sense of that term, of every landholder, to originate or to concur in any measure that is at all likely, or which presents any rational probability of improving the situation of the tenants and labouring classes upon his estate; as, in so doing, he benefits himself in whatever point of view he looks to advantage or satisfaction. By making arrangements that would give, as it were, freedom of action to the former, by means of the unincumbered employment of his capital, the latter classes would be immediately benefited by having more work, and being better paid for it; and by also adopting measures to place those classes in a situation of more comfort than in many places they at present enjoy, there is no doubt that the tone of their minds would be greatly changed for the better, and that they would be much more disposed to harmonize with the tranquillity and good order of society, than to be continually subject to that anxiety and remorse which never fail to attend the commission of crimes, whatever mask of hardihood may be sometimes worn by offenders. Extreme poverty, more especially where a man has a family to support, is in

itself a great temptation ; and if through that he sets a bad example to his children, the evil is a hundred-fold increased. There is too much reason to apprehend that this greatest of all mischiefs is already operating to a considerable extent, and there can be no greater wisdom than that which would be evinced by checking it at its source. Unfortunately it is, in this point of view, in a great degree beyond the reach of legislation, the measures which can alone operate as effectual remedies being, for the most part, dependent for their efficiency, and in many respects for their origin, upon a large number of individuals, variously disposed, and of many different opinions, who constitute the great body of landed proprietors.

But the case is not, therefore, hopeless: the evil has increased to such a magnitude as to attract the attention of almost every nobleman and gentleman in the kingdom ; and it may thus be hoped that at length the true source of the calamity may be admitted, and a remedy consequently applied where alone it can be really efficacious. It is not the transporting offenders to a distant clime, or the immuring them in gaols, or in floating prisons at home, that will operate in this way, or even as a palliation ; experience has, unhappily, of late, too clearly proved that the proneness to crime has outrun all the severity and terror of

punishment; and why? because, in addition to the motives or temptations already mentioned, the fact is notoriously true that many men actually commit crime for the purpose, or, at least, with the hope of bettering their situation! Is this a state of things which ought to be suffered to continue? There may be many shades of opinion as to modes and measures, but there surely can be no difference as to the main point, namely, that it is most essential to the welfare and prosperity of the state, that a large number of the individuals composing its population should not be reduced to that hopeless condition, in which they have no other prospect of bettering themselves than by the commission of crimes. Humanity revolts at the bare idea, but stubborn facts have, unhappily, proved its reality. Can there exist, then, a stronger motive with all who possess any property, or any influence whatever in the management of property, to make every possible exertion, to contribute every possible effort, towards the establishment of a better system; or at least to endeavour, by every practicable means, to purify the sources from whence such pollution proceeds? Education may, undoubtedly, do much; but if there is great poverty and great temptation, it may, unfortunately, teach a man in what way he can more securely systematize crime, as well as point out to him the paths of religion, of virtue and integrity; and it is a well-known and

melancholy truth, that instances of this retrograde course, of this abuse of either natural talents or acquired endowments, are, by no means, rare.

But where, it may be asked, is an effectual remedy to be found? Religious instruction, and education accompanying it, are, unquestionably, most essential; but they are not of themselves, nor can they be, the remedy sought for: they, doubtless, frequently enable men to bear up against calamity, and resist temptation; but it is impossible they can remove the evils arising from the extreme poverty of numerous classes of the community, especially where a man who is sent to gaol, or transported to New South Wales, fares better, and is better off, than when he was at large, or at home. The temptations to commit offences are thus so much increased, that punishment, in many cases, becomes a mere name: it is, in fact, no punishment, it is what the offender sought, what he looked forward to, what constituted his chief motive for committing the offence for which he is (as it is called) punished. That this is no exaggerated statement, every day's experience abundantly testifies: how then can punishment, generally speaking, operate to decrease crime? The reverse is, unhappily, too clearly established, and is, indeed, admitted. Even those measures which were thought to operate as preventives of crime, by means of the reformation of offenders, have

been found to be ineffectual ; and why ? because the strong motive still exists, the desire a man has to better his situation ; and his being unable to discover any other mode of doing it than by committing some offence which, through the medium of legal punishment, may lead to the accomplishment of that object, he taking care, or at least believing that he does so, not to subject himself to the extreme penalty of the law.

This is, in sober truth, the real state of the case, and it is most fitting that it should be anxiously looked at in that point of view, in order that some remedy may be discovered and applied. It would be infinitely better for landholders and capitalists to make at once some sacrifices, than to live continually surrounded by greatly and rapidly increasing wretchedness and crime, which must entail constantly augmenting expenses upon the former, and ultimately upon all classes of the community, who have any means left of paying them. Offenders may be transported in shoals to distant climes ; but if this is merely what they look to and seek for, what is it but another mode of emigration, and that the worst and the most expensive ? if the same temptations still remain at home, how can it possibly be expected that the sending them abroad will remedy the evil ? Place men who have no other resource, in a situation in which they can subsist their families and themselves by means of

honest labour, without being compelled to endure the degradation of receiving alms from their parishes, and with respect to the greater part of them the temptation will be removed. It would extend far beyond the unavoidable limits of a work like the present, were this subject to be pursued at greater length : one remedy proposed, as already noticed, has been emigration ; and supposing that there is an actual redundancy of population pressing upon the means of subsistence, it is, of course, the only remedy ; but unless the excess is real, and not merely apparent or a temporary inconvenience, arising from local or artificial causes, or from a derangement in the system which admits of being set to rights at home, to send abroad the ablest, the strongest, and the most laborious of the working classes (and such alone can be located) would be a very serious error in policy.

It is true, that to locate families at home with advantages superior to those now enjoyed by others in similar situations, must necessarily be a work of great difficulty, in consequence of the various rights attached to private property ; but at any rate the experiment is worth trying : all those classes who possess land or property of any description, being mainly and most essentially interested in the issue, and more especially, and which can only be effected by men of property, and capitalists, it is worth while to make every endeavour

to better the condition of the agricultural classes, which would also improve that of all others : if some landholders, in order to effect this most desirable object, were even obliged to borrow money, there is no doubt that they might realize an additional rent, sufficient not only to pay the interest of the loan, and make a provision for its speedy liquidation, but that ultimately their incomes would be greatly increased. It is only necessary, in order to show, not merely the probability, but the next to actual certainty of the assertion, to refer to the present state of Scotland in this respect, compared with what is most authentically known to have been its situation several years since. It is not, therefore, an Utopian project that is here recommended, but one of pounds, shillings, and pence ; and at the same time one that would produce incalculable advantages to all classes of society in the British empire. To effect such a change, it would be essentially requisite, in the first instance, for landholders, as their tenants quitted their farms, to take the valuation upon themselves, and to grant leases for sufficient terms to succeeding tenants upon the free-entering system, at rents fluctuating according to the average prices of the various species of agricultural produce at certain fixed periods. If the tenants had thus a sufficient interest in the soil, and their capital in hand, there is no doubt that, as in Scotland, the

land would speedily be very much improved, the produce, and consequently the sales and the amount of money circulating, greatly increased, which would benefit all classes ; and the sums payable to the proprietors of the soil would, of course, be augmented in proportion ; whilst the condition of the labouring classes would, as a necessary consequence, be highly improved.

Some difficulty of making an alteration, especially considering the rights attached to private property, is admitted, though, at the same time, it may be asked, why there should be greater obstacles in the way of effecting changes respecting agriculture, than in establishing a general custom with reference to any kind of trade ? It is not, however, meant to be denied that every one has a right to do what he pleases with his own property : all that is intended to be urged is the great importance of bringing about an alteration, both with respect to the advancement of private interests, and most essentially that of the public welfare and prosperity. Were but one considerable landholder in each county to set the example, the obvious benefit and utility of the change would very soon induce others to follow it ; nay, they would be in some sort compelled to it, by the clear proof which would be thus afforded, that the alteration was not merely for the better, but that it was a change producing advantages

in which they would be glad and eager to participate, by means of the adoption of similar measures. There is one point, in addition to what has been before intimated, that it may be necessary to notice: it has of late become a practice (at least in many instances), where leases are granted, drawn up by professional men in London, merely to insert a stipulation that the land shall be farmed according to the custom of the county. This, unhappily, tends most frequently to keep up and, as it were, authorize very absurd and injurious customs; and landholders would find it to be their interest altogether to abolish this practice, and to have inserted, in plain and intelligible terms, those restrictions which it might be necessary or which they wished should be conformed to by their tenants. Nothing is more essential than to have these documents worded in as clear and concise a manner as possible: nothing would be more easy than to pursue this method, were a regular system of tenancy to be introduced and acted upon throughout the country.

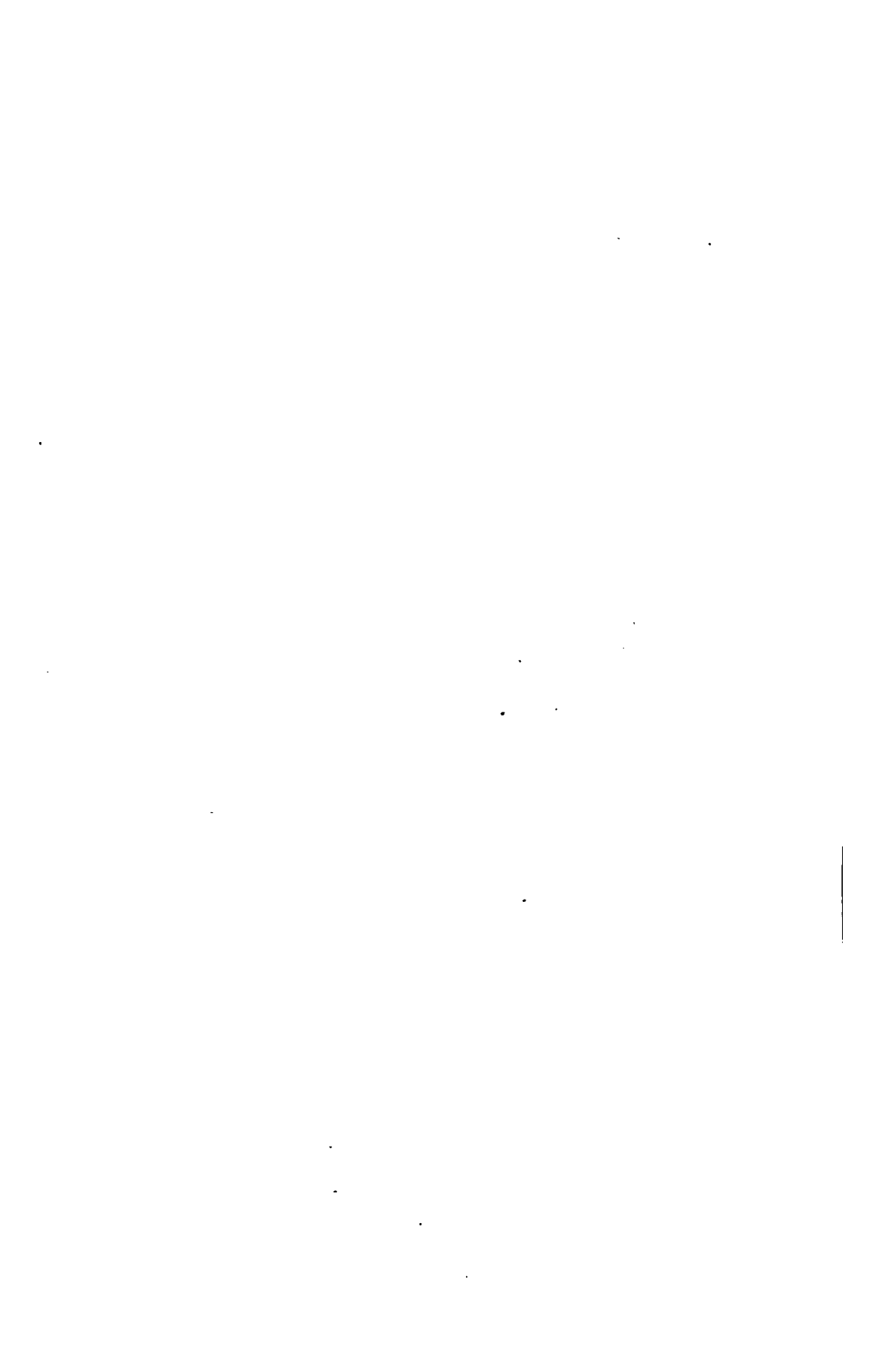
As this highly important subject cannot, for the reason before stated, be here entered upon more at length, it only remains to observe upon one or two points immediately connected with the object of the work. The customs and practice of tenancy will be found accurately detailed from actual and very recent information obtained upon each

spot, under their respective heads in the different counties: there may, doubtless, be exceptions in each, varying more or less from the system usually or commonly acted upon; but what is given has been found to be the general practice or custom of the county or district. By turning over its pages, and comparing these customs and practices in different counties or divisions, or parts of counties, (which sometimes vary from each other,) it will be at once seen what are the advantages or disadvantages of each, and how far and in what respect they are beneficial or injurious to the incoming or outgoing tenants, or to both. The time of entry is one very important point to be attended to, with the view of ascertaining the privileges and advantages that may be obtained by entering at one period of the year, and which cannot be had at another time; the course of an agricultural system being necessarily dependent upon certain times and seasons, which renders the period of entering into possession of a farm of so much importance, with reference to operations that must at certain times be commenced or concluded. With regard to this part of the subject, some statements will be found in the Appendix, for the purpose of showing what is the best period of the year for entering upon a farm, in order to possess the readiest and most advantageous means of turning all the resources it affords to a profitable account.

The Table of Contents will give the pages where the different heads in each county, under which are arranged the various particulars comprized within "The Practice of Tenancy," "The Customs between Landlord and Tenant, and the Incoming and Outgoing Tenant," and "The Mode of Farming, Implements, &c." are respectively to be found. Those gentlemen, therefore, who wish to refer to the work, either for general or comparative information upon those points, or any of them, or with regard to any particular counties, will have an easy mode of doing so, without being at the trouble of looking through pages which they do not want to read. The details, however, which are given cannot fail to be highly interesting to a great number of individuals, whether noblemen or gentlemen, who are the proprietors of or interested in the soil, or professional gentlemen, whose avocations frequently lead them to pay much attention to the management and letting of estates; or farmers, to whom especially the work will be of importance, as well as to all other persons, whether looking to the possession or occupation of land, or in any manner interested, either directly or indirectly, in the soil or its produce.

MIDDLESEX not being to be found in the ensuing pages, it may be proper to observe, that it was thought totally unnecessary to introduce that county, there being, in fact, no point connected with any system of agriculture, or with any practice or custom of tenancy, which could be elucidated by referring to it. It is well known that, from the circumstance of a great part of Middlesex being in immediate contact with the metropolis, the land is chiefly devoted to cow-pasture, for the purpose of supplying an immense population with milk, or employed in producing vegetables, fruit, and flowers; and where that is not the case, there is no system or practice that could be stated as the general or prevailing one, nor any, indeed, the operation or effect of which calls for particular notice.

THE
CUSTOMS AND PRACTICE OF TENANCY
NOW MOST PREVALENT
IN THE DIFFERENT COUNTIES.



BEDFORDSHIRE.

IN many parts of this county the soil is peculiarly well adapted for the growth of vegetables; and from its being naturally one of quick or early production, a number of acres are devoted to horticultural purposes, for the supply of the London, Cambridge, and other neighbouring markets. The county presents an alternation of gentle hills, and beautiful, extensive vales. The soil is generally sandy; it formerly, in several places, produced nothing but forest wood, but the greatest part of what used to consist of waste land and chases, is now cultivated, and is become very fertile.

The eastern side of the county is chiefly a sandy loam, with the exception of some spots where the soil is poor and hungry, and of the worst kind of clay. There is a limited proportion of grazing land in Bedfordshire, but the greater part of it is very good. The chief articles of produce in this county are corn and vegetables; and it is especially noted for early peas.

PRACTICE OF TENANCY.

The most usual time for entering upon a farm is at Michaelmas; but some takings are at Lady-day: the farms are most commonly let upon a short lease of seven years.

The rents are paid half-yearly: the highway-tax is half paid, and half worked out: the poor-rates are generally heavy; they are collected, in some places, once a month, or as often as the money is wanted. In districts where

the land is chiefly used in grazing, the neighbouring arable parishes suffer much in consequence of the superabundance of hands, and the difficulty of finding employment for them. With regard to tithes, they are chiefly paid by composition; in some places, where inclosures have been made by act of Parliament, the tithes have been extinguished, in consideration of an allotment of land.

CUSTOMS BETWEEN LANDLORD AND TENANT, AND THE
INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANT.

A tenant is generally restricted from breaking up pasture land; he is likewise bound to feed all hay and straw upon the premises: this latter restraint is now much more general than it used to be, owing to the great inconvenience occasioned within a few years past, in various places, from the want of it: there are some farms, however, which are still free from the restriction; but as the leases terminate, it is generally imposed upon the new tenant.

With regard to the mode of farming—the quantity or rotation of crops, there is no general rule, nor as to the proportion of wheat allowed to be sown.

A tenant quitting at Michaelmas, is at liberty to plough and sow the wheat; and one leaving at Lady-day, to sow the spring corn; provided, in the former case, the grain can be sown by Michaelmas-day, and in the latter by Lady-day: the outgoing tenant, however, has the option, in both cases, of either sowing it himself, or of allowing his successor to come upon the land to do it instead.

When the outgoer sows the crops, they are generally valued to the incomer, so as to include all the labour

bestowed upon them, provided he chooses to take them ; but if he refuses them, the former is obliged to hold the land he has sown till harvest-time, and spend the straw of the crop upon the premises, having barn and yard room allowed him for that purpose. Where, however, a tenant is free from this restriction, the corn and straw are generally carried off elsewhere ; but under either custom, the incomer has a right to make use of all the dung he finds upon the premises, free of expense, no payment for it being required. The incomer pays for the grass seeds according to their value, and that of the labour, and likewise for fallow-ploughing, or any spring-ploughing, which his predecessor, quitting at Lady-day, had not time to sow : but with respect to any fallow, either for wheat or turnips, when the outgoer takes the crop, there is no demand made upon the incoming tenant.

MODE OF CULTIVATION, IMPLEMENTS, &c.

Owing to the nature of the soil, turnips can be very profitably cultivated, and they are generally grown throughout the county, especially the Swedish turnip, which is produced in great quantities, and of very excellent quality. The rotation upon the sandy soil is—first, turnips; second, barley; third, seeds; fourth, wheat. On the loamy soil, beans or oats are generally sown after the wheat; and upon the clays, beans and wheat are the principal produce.

It is a very common practice to lay clay upon the land, which is found greatly to improve a sandy soil, and it is frequently applied as a manure for turnips, but it is requisite it should be spread out in the winter, in order that it may be purified by the frost: the clay, in many

respects, changes the nature of the soil, and its effects continue to operate for many years. The drill is now much used, owing to the lightness of the soil; great part of the wheat is planted by the dibble, in the same manner as beans; and this practice has been proved to answer a better purpose than sowing or drilling, as the wheat finds a firmer rooting, and the ground does not require nearly so much harrowing, in order to cover the grain. Threshing machines are now much disused, being seldom seen in any part of the county. The plough which is now in most general use, is the Ipswich plough, with cast-iron tips.

With regard to the draining, it is chiefly laid in with bushes and straw, and generally at the expense of the tenant. The outbuildings, which are very neatly thatched and weather-boarded, are most commonly kept in repair at the charge of the landlord.

BERWICKSHIRE.

THIS county has always been considered healthy, the air being esteemed salubrious, and many of its inhabitants living to an advanced age.

Its agriculture, which was for many years much neglected, has been of late more attended to; and though, in some quarters, improvement is still only in an early stage, yet through the great encouragement very laudably given by the landholders of the present day, many spots, heretofore supposed to be almost barren, have been, by skilful and industrious cultivation, made to produce excellent crops. Nor is this increased fertility purchased by any sacrifice of capital, the produce satisfactorily repaying the farmer for his exertions and his outlay of money; whilst at the same time further improvements are making with great spirit, and the quantity of stock kept on the land has been in a few years nearly doubled.

The land in Berwickshire is of a mixed character, but the greater part is of an inferior quality, and requires to be cultivated in a very peculiar manner. There are some spots, however, of great fertility, which have been in cultivation for a much longer time than the generality of the land (capable of bearing the same rotation of crops and management as other productive soils); and as the plough now passes over every portion of the soil that is likely to repay exertion and expenditure by a sufficient produce, there will, doubtless, be a rapid progress in improvement.

PRACTICE OF TENANCY.

The farms in this county are let in a very peculiar manner, but in a way highly advantageous to the farmer, so that he may make the most of his money, besides entering at a time that will allow him to sow his crop in proper and seasonable time. They are let on lease for nineteen or twenty-one years, and the tenant enters into possession at May-day: his advantages are these; he enters upon a farm without having any money whatever to pay for a single article that he may find upon it; and eighteen months are allowed to elapse after his taking possession before he is called upon for any rent, and then only for half a year, leaving a twelvemonth due. He continues from that time to pay his rent regularly half-yearly, but still remaining indebted to his landlord in the amount of rent for the first year, for which ultimately he has credit given to him until the expiration of a year after the termination of his lease; this, of course, gives him time to take his corn and other produce to market, to enable him to raise the money. If he has the means of paying the money before the termination of his lease, he settles the account, if not, through the custom existing between an incoming and outgoing tenant, the last crop remains upon the farm; and if the landlord has any doubt of the solvency of the latter, he can prevent any part of the crop or stock being conveyed away from the premises at the end of the lease, and thus secure himself.

The tenant has nothing to pay but the rent, all parochial taxes being remitted by the landlord, except a highway rate, which is generally commuted for by carting stone upon the roads, the stone itself being found

in great abundance. The poor who are incapable of labour, are supported by voluntary contributions received at the Kirk door, the landholders supplying the deficiency to make up the requisite sum for their relief; whilst those who are able to work receive nothing but what they can obtain by means of their own industry.

CUSTOMS BETWEEN LANDLORD AND TENANT, AND THE
INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANT.

A tenant in this county is strictly prohibited from taking two white crops successively; he is bound to lay the land down in regular rotation; he is to have a proportion in turnips, or fallow, in corn, seeds, and grass every year, and in that state is bound to leave it at the expiration of his lease, being likewise restricted from removing either hay or straw from the premises. The land not being generally a kindly soil for the growth of wheat, very little of that grain is sown in this county; nor do the landlords, most of whom are anxious that their property should assume the same aspect of fertility and good management as that of their neighbours, allow of its being cultivated except upon a very limited scale; and in some parts it is entirely prohibited.

An incoming tenant, having nothing whatever to pay for on entering a farm, and being liable to no demand for a considerable period afterwards, as already stated, can, if he possesses capital sufficient to stock one, immediately commence business. When he leaves the farm and becomes the outgoing tenant, he harvests his last crop, and threshes the corn upon the premises, but he is bound to feed or to leave behind the straw, and he also leaves the fallows, grass, and seeds, as well as the dung,

for the benefit of his successor, which can, of course, be no detriment to him, as he merely leaves the farm as he found it, the incoming tenant always possessing the advantage of having all his money in hand, to convert it to the best possible use for his own profit.

MODE OF CULTIVATION, IMPLEMENTS, &c.

Through the agricultural processes adopted in this county, waste land is brought much quicker into a state of cultivation than in almost any other ; and though this is attributed by some to superior skill and industry, yet there can be no doubt that the advantages possessed by the tenantry ought to be considered as one main cause of it. Turnips are generally grown, and upon such a species of soil, and in such situations, that many persons would not credit it, without having had an opportunity of witnessing the fact.

The rotation is—first, turnips ; second, oats or barley ; third, seeds which remain as grass on some lands for one or two years, and on others for five or six, according to the quality of the soil ; that which is to remain the longest in grass pays the least rent : when it continues so for upwards of a year, a crop of oats is generally taken, when it is broken up before the turnip crop ; but on the land which the landlord requires to be down only for one year, the tenant is allowed to take a crop of beans or peas, instead of the seeds.

The turnips are produced by the aid of lime, and of whatever other manure can be made in the yards ; they are fed off by the hogs*, which are taken as much care of as possible during the winter, it being

* One-year-old sheep.

from them and the cattle they breed, that the farmers expect to raise the greatest part of their rent. The sheep that are kept in this county are the Cheviot breed, which are small, but very handsome; they are bred in great numbers on the Cheviot Hills: those that are reared in the south of Scotland have generally white faces, whilst those that come from the north have black ones, with horns, and their wool is much looser and longer than that of the former.

The long-woolled sheep, at the commencement of winter, are generally besmeared with a composition of tar and butter, or tar and oil, which is laid over the whole body, in order to preserve them from the effects of the severity of the weather, and also to protect the wool against the briers.

The drill is used for every kind of grain; the ploughs in use are of cast iron, not only here but throughout Scotland; they are drawn by only two horses, and that in situations, where the apparent difficulties excite astonishment in the unpractised observer.

But little stock of any kind is fattened in Berwickshire for the butcher, the breeding system being chiefly adhered to. The threshing machines are not much used here, the straw not being considered near so good as that derived from the old system of threshing by the flail.

BERKSHIRE.

THE land in this county varies extremely; there is but very little of it that unites the qualities of a free working soil and a good substance, it being in general very poor upon the hills, whilst in the lowlands it is cold and laborious to work.

There is a very considerable proportion of uncultivated land, in the eastern and southern parts of Berkshire; the former comprising Windsor Forest and its appendages, whilst, towards the borders of Hampshire, there is also a vast tract of forest land; the western and middle parts, however, are tolerably fertile, particularly the Vale of White Horse, and produce grain in great abundance.

There is in various parts great plenty of chalk, which is generally resorted to as a manure; but there is a considerable difference in the quality, it being in some situations a chalky marl, which in a short time yields to the weather; whilst in others it is more of a stony nature, and double the time elapses before the weather has any effect upon it.

No particular breed of sheep or of any kind of cattle belongs to this county; there is, however, a remarkable one of pigs: formerly, there was scarcely a sheep to be seen here that had no horns, but now those principally kept are of the South Down breed, though very much crossed. Some farmers have turned a Gloucestershire

or Leicestershire ram into a South Down ewe-flock, by which means numbers of ewes have been destroyed, the head of a Gloucestershire or Leicestershire lamb being unnaturally large for a South Down ewe: this point, more than any other, shows the breed of a sheep, and ought to be particularly attended to in a ram selected to run with a flock. If this cross was reversed, the ram being South Down and the ewe Gloucestershire, or Leicestershire, there would be nothing out of proportion, and only the usual danger to contend with at lambing-time. On account of this cross, however, numbers of ewes have been slaughtered at the butchers, that could neither deliver themselves of the lamb, nor could it be taken from them, owing to the size of the head.

PRACTICE OF TENANCY.

Farms in this county are generally held on leases, for seven or fourteen years; the time for entering upon them is at Michaelmas, with the privilege of going on the land to plough the turnip or wheat fallows at Lady-day, from which time the incoming tenant has part of the house allowed him, with stable room for one team, to enable him conveniently to perform the ploughing; the outgoer retains part of the house, with the use of the barns and yards, for the purpose of feeding and threshing his last crop, until the May-day or Midsummer subsequent to the period of his giving up possession.

The rents are, in most places, paid half yearly; the poor-rates, which are very moderate, are generally collected once a quarter; the highway tax is in part paid by composition, and partly worked out; the tithes are generally compounded for.

CUSTOMS BETWEEN LANDLORD AND TENANT, AND THE
INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANT.

There is, in general, no restriction upon a tenant as to the cultivation of the land or the mode of cropping it, previous to the last year, or in some places the last two years of his lease. Up to that time, he farms and crops the land as he pleases; but he covenants in his lease to leave, the last year, a stated number of acres for fallow, which are usually oat-stubble. Where the restriction extends to the last two years, the tenant is bound, the last year but one, to fallow the land from which, the year preceding, he took a crop of oats; that from which he takes a crop of oats the last year but one, he leaves the last year as fallow land. The restriction upon a tenant to leave a certain number of acres for fallow at the expiration of his term, does not bind him to leave them in particular parts of the farm, only that so many acres are to be left; and it sometimes happens, that all the worst of the land is left for an incomer, which is a serious consideration, the land on the hills being generally very indifferent.

A similar custom prevails with regard to hay and straw; a tenant having the privilege of selling hay and generally wheat straw, (although, in some places, he is only allowed to exchange it for dung,) during the term of his lease, until the last crop. The wheat straw of the last crop he is bound to leave upon the premises for his successor, either for the purpose of thatching, or for any other use to which he may choose to apply it. He is also obliged to feed the hay crop, or as much of it as he can use during the time, and cannot remove any from the farm: the oat and barley straw he likewise cove-

wants to feed on the premises during the whole of the term.

The outgoer has no demand upon the incomer for any crop or labour, excepting for the clover or other grass seeds upon the ground, for which he receives the value of seed and labour; and although the incomer has the privilege of entering upon the fallow land at Lady-day, yet the outgoer pays all the rent up to the time of his quitting. The incomer, having the above-mentioned privilege, has sufficient time to plough all the land for his turnip, or wheat fallows, which land, his predecessor cannot touch after the last Michaelmas but one of the term of his lease, without being hired or authorized so to do by the incomer. If the outgoer does not feed all the hay crop, the remainder is valued to his successor; but merely at a feeding out price. This is the only article, with the exception of the grass seeds, which an incoming tenant is bound by the custom of the county to take. But from the want of any restriction, previous to the last one or two years of a lease, a tenant entering upon a farm in this county is generally at the expense of much labour for several years, without receiving any adequate return.

MODE OF FARMING, IMPLEMENTS, &c.

Through the system acted upon in Berkshire, the soil, generally speaking, is very much out of condition. A tenant, up to the last one or two years of his lease, drives the land as hard as he possibly can, and, in fact, leaves it entirely run out: thus, the labour of several years is required to put it into any thing like a good condition; whilst by the time A. has brought his land tolerably round, his neighbour B. perhaps intends to relinquish his farm; and thus is kept up the neglected appear-

ance of the country. Where a farmer cultivates his own property, it is, in consequence of this system, generally seen to the greatest advantage, like a fat sheep amongst a lean flock; and in the neighbourhood of Reading some well-cultivated land may be seen, which is chiefly managed by the proprietors themselves.

A great quantity of oats is grown in this county; they are most commonly the last crop taken before the land is fallowed: the rotation on the turnip land is—first, turnips; second, barley or oats; third, seeds; fourth, wheat; fifth, oats: upon the heavy land—first, fallow; second, wheat; third, beans; fourth, wheat or oats—if, fourth, wheat, then, fifth, oats. The land is, generally speaking, tried to the utmost.

Great quantities of chalk are laid out upon the land as manure for turnips, and for all kinds of grain; it is the chief article used in this way, with the exception of the produce of the farm-yard: there is, however, a practice frequently adopted in Berkshire, for the purpose of manuring the land for a turnip crop, which consists in ploughing the stubbles after harvest, and sowing them with turnips, which are fed off the last of all; and thus a fallow is made of the land for a seasonable crop, which is manured by feeding off the stubble turnips: rye is likewise used for the same purpose, being sown as forward as it can be in the autumn, and fed off during the month of April.

The plough most commonly used in Berks very much resembles that employed in Norfolk, but it is generally drawn by four horses, driven double, a boy usually leading the two near horses, by means of a cord.

The drill is very little used, excepting for peas and beans, where the land will allow of it; on the heavy soils

beans are chiefly planted by the dibble; the wheat, and other kinds of grain, are sown by the hand. The land-press, which on the light soils is frequently wanted, has not been long introduced into use, but it meets with general approbation.

Very little draining is performed in any part of this county, not, certainly, because there is no need of it, but on account of the expense; in most places, however, whatever draining the tenant wishes to have done, the landlord is willing to supply the material.

The outbuildings are chiefly thatched, and sided with weather-boarding; they, as also the gates, and other dead fences, are always put into a good state of repair at the commencement of a lease, after which they are covenanted to be kept so by the tenant, the landlord, however, finding the materials, but which are converted to the purpose for which they are wanted, at the expense of the tenant.

BRECKNOCKSHIRE.

THE air upon the hills in this county is very piercing, the snow remaining upon them till a very late period of the year: the mountains are extremely barren, but in the vallies the soil is fertile, and, besides producing all kinds of grain, affords very excellent pasture for cattle. A portion of the eastern side of the county is remarkably fruitful, and the scenery beautifully picturesque: the western part is more mountainous, and is chiefly devoted to the feeding of sheep and cattle.

The cattle in this county are of the Herefordshire breed, which, in South Wales, are chiefly reared here, and in the shires of Radnor and Monmouth. The sheep are also of the same kind as those that are kept in Herefordshire; they are purchased in great numbers at Michaelmas, and are generally sent into Essex, and to other parts.

The soil is chiefly a red sandy loam, throughout the county; but in some places gravel is more prevalent than in others, and particularly in the western part.

PRACTICE OF TENANCY.

The most usual period for entering upon farms is Lady-day; some, chiefly those bordering upon Herefordshire, are taken possession of at Candlemas; in either case, the new tenant is not allowed entirely to occupy the house till May-day.

The tenants in this county most commonly hold at will: the rents are paid half-yearly; the poor-rates are

collected every month or six weeks ; the highway tax is half compounded for, and half worked out : there is generally a composition for tithes.

CUSTOMS BETWEEN LANDLORD AND TENANT, AND THE
INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANT.

A tenant here is under little restriction ; indeed, generally speaking, he is not sufficiently restrained. He is prohibited from conveying away either hay or straw from the premises ; and, in some places, he covenants to sow only a certain portion of the farm, usually about one-third of the arable land with wheat, and to bring a certain number of loads of lime upon the land every year ; but the general custom is, that the tenant may sow what wheat he chooses, and even for his last year's crop, provided he does it before Michaelmas ; he must not touch it afterwards. It is very common for the landlord to allow part of the first year's rent for lime ; but a much better plan has been lately adopted, namely, that of allowing a tenant an annual deduction, provided he brings on the farm a certain quantity of lime. The general mode of agreement, according to this system, is as follows :—Supposing the rent of the farm to be twenty-five shillings per acre, the landlord, on condition that the tenant lays out *annually* a stated number of loads of lime, covenants to reduce it to twenty shillings : a farm is thus always left in a good state for the entrance of an incoming tenant ; whilst in the case of one sum being allowed in the first instance, the tenant is not bound to continue liming the land, and he has the opportunity of running it completely out of condition.

An outgoing tenant has part of the house, and one field, with the use of the yards, until May-day, for his

cattle: he is paid nothing for the dung: for his wheat crop he takes two-thirds if the land was fallowed, but only half, if sown after any other crop, the tithe being first deducted: he pays no rent after the time of giving up possession of the land. Most commonly a tenant is bound to leave the same quantity of land in seeds, when he quits, as he found when he entered upon the farm; if he leaves any more, he is paid for them. Generally speaking, the incomer cannot enter, without permission from the outgoer, to plough for the spring crop, before Lady-day, and he is then obliged to rely upon the neighbouring farmers for assistance; neither can the latter (being governed by the custom of the county the same as the former) plough the land intended for the spring crop, and apply it to his own purpose. The incomer does not pay for any fallows; and where the outgoer merely leaves the same quantity of seeds that he found, the former has nothing to pay on entering, it being at his option either to plough for his spring crop,—although he cannot enter before Lady-day,—or to pay the outgoer for doing it; and he claims a portion of the wheat crop by paying rent and taxes for the whole of the land from the time of his taking possession.

MODE OF FARMING, IMPLEMENTS, &c.

The mode of cultivation is greatly improved towards the eastern part of the county; in that quarter turnips are generally cultivated, and the rotation is—first, turnips; second, barley; third, seeds; fourth, wheat; fifth, peas or vetches. In the interior scarcely any turnips are grown: the rotation there is—first, fallow; second, wheat; third, barley; fourth, seeds; fifth, wheat or oats; and,

generally, sixth, a second crop of barley, which is usually dressed for with lime.

The corn is chiefly sown by hand: very few threshing machines are used. The draining is generally done by the landlord, but in some places the tenant is expected to pay a proportion of the expense. With regard to the fences, the tenant specifically covenants to leave them in the same state on quitting, as he found them when he took possession.

The outbuildings, most of which are very convenient, are kept in repair by the tenant, they having been put into a good state when he entered; they are chiefly built with brick and stone slate.

BUCKINGHAMSHIRE.

THIS county is bounded on the south by the Chiltern Hills, which consist chiefly of chalk, and are in various parts covered with wood, principally beech, but timber elm grows more commonly than any other kind of wood excepting beech, throughout the county.

The soil is for the greater part a strong black land; but towards the north, on the borders of Bedfordshire, the country becomes more varied, by the frequent inter-spersion of sandy hills, which are generally of a gentle declivity. The hills produce barley and wheat; the Vale of Aylesbury, which is considered to be as fertile as any spot in the empire, is chiefly devoted to the grazing of cattle and sheep; in the southern part of the county, however, there are more of them fed for the butcher

than in the north, the latter part being chiefly occupied by the dairies, which supply the metropolis with vast quantities of butter, though many sheep and lambs are fed there. It is from various quarters in this county that a large proportion of the hay is sent, which comes to the London market.

PRACTICE OF TENANCY.

The general period for entering upon a farm is Lady-day, but in some places it is Michaelmas: leases are most commonly granted, but not for a long term. The rents are paid half-yearly, but a tenant is generally allowed to pay only half a year's rent at the end of the first twelve months, and to remain six months in arrear until the expiration of his lease. The poor-rates are chiefly collected quarterly, but at shorter periods in towns, and in some situations where arable land is surrounded by grazing land, and where they are much heavier, the employment for the poor in the latter cases bearing no proportion to the average on farms.

The highway rate is partly compounded for, and partly worked out: the farms in many places are exonerated from tithes, by means of an allotment of land devoted in lieu of them for the support of the incumbent; and where that is not the case, there is generally a modus, or composition for tithes.

CUSTOMS BETWEEN LANDLORD AND TENANT, AND THE INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANT.

. A tenant in this county is, generally speaking, scarcely under any restriction; he is allowed to carry hay and

straw off the farm, and to crop the land as he pleases: in some cases, indeed, he is restricted to two crops and a fallow, but this is of rare occurrence, the system most frequently pursued being of a contrary description.

An outgoing tenant can sow the spring corn until Lady-day, it being entirely at his option to allow the incomer to enter upon the land, in order to plough and sow it himself. The former is entitled to be paid for his seeds on the ground, for the carting of manure, and for any ploughing done by him, of which his successor reaps the whole of the benefit. If the incomer does not agree to the valuation of the wheat and spring corn, sown before Lady-day, he having the option of either taking it or not, the outgoer may cut and take the crop himself, on paying rent and taxes for the land it stands upon until the following Michaelmas, and convey it away wherever he pleases. This custom frequently compels an incoming tenant, in his own defence, as it were, to purchase a crop for the sake of the dung; and thus a tenant entering upon such a farm has to pay a large sum of money: he is not, however, bound by custom to pay for more than the seeds, the spring and winter ploughings solely for his benefit, and any turnip land fed off, which he pays for as fallow: nor would he, probably, do more than this, if he could put up with the inconvenience of losing the straw, he having left a farm under the same custom; otherwise he must risk the value of his predecessor's crop, and expend great part of his money at the outset of his undertaking. The incoming tenant, however, has the benefit of all the dung that is left in the yards, or upon the farm, free of expense.

MODE OF CULTIVATION, IMPLEMENTS, &c.

Turnip husbandry is chiefly carried on upon the hills, and is confined to a small portion of the county. Chalk is very commonly laid out during the winter as a manure for the turnips, which, from the effects of the weather, runs like lime, and is found, when properly managed, to last as manure for many years.

The rotation of crops upon the hills is—first, turnips; second, barley; third, seeds; fourth, wheat; and often, fifth, oats; but, on the low grounds, wheat and beans are the chief productions. This mode of cultivation is, in some places, closely followed for a long time, without making a fallow, and on ground so managed oats are seldom grown, they being found to impoverish the land more than a crop of wheat.

There is but little draining practised in this county, though some parts would be greatly improved by it, and what is done is chiefly at the expense of the landlords.

Wheat and other kinds of grain are here usually sown by hand, with the exception of beans, which are set by the dibble; this, however, is rather a tedious process, the man employed, dibbling with one hand, and setting with the other, as if he was planting cabbages: this method is, it seems, adopted on account of children being careless in planting unless they are strictly watched. Neither the drill nor the threshing machine are much used in this county. The outbuildings, which are generally of brick, and thatched, are kept in repair by the landlords.

CAMBRIDGESHIRE.

THIS county presents a great sameness of scenery, the surface being generally flat, and very naked. The land is chiefly a black sort of ground, but mixed with a considerable proportion of clay, forming a soil as stubborn as birdlime, and which retains the water so much upon the surface, that little or nothing can be done with it during the winter ; and thus, from the neglected state in which great part of the land is allowed to remain, very little profit can be derived from it. It is well known that this county produces very excellent butter ; and the meadows on the banks of the Cam are particularly rich in herbage, which is devoted to the service of the dairies ; but with the exception of this vein of meadow, there is very little good grass-land to be met with in Cambridge-shire.

The northern part of the county consists chiefly of fen-land, which produces various kinds of seeds, such as hemp and flax, and a quantity of mustard ; potatoes are also very extensively cultivated in this quarter, and are sold at a remarkably cheap rate : the crops of corn in this district are generally very abundant, especially that of wheat.

PRACTICE OF TENANCY.

The tenants in this county chiefly hold at will ; of the few leases that are granted, the terms do not exceed four or five years : so short a period places a man in a more difficult situation than if he had no lease.

The farms, in general, are not very extensive ; they are taken and entered upon at old Lady-day, but the outgoing tenant has the use of the barns and yards till the Midsummer twelvemonth following.

The rents are paid half-yearly : the poor-rates are commonly collected once a quarter : the highway-tax is, in part, worked out, and partly compounded for : the land is, in most places, exonerated from tithes, by means of allotments in lieu of them ; but where that is not the case, they are generally compounded for.

CUSTOMS BETWEEN LANDLORD AND TENANT, AND THE
INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANT.

A tenant is generally restricted from breaking up pasture land, and from removing either hay or straw from the premises : these are almost the only restraints he is subjected to, being otherwise allowed to farm his land in whatever way best pleases himself.

An outgoing tenant generally harvests his own crop ; leaving at old Lady-day, he has time to sow all the spring crop, which he harvests as well as the wheat, and pays no rent after the time of his quitting ; he is bound, however, to thresh the corn, and feed the straw upon the premises, by the following Midsummer after harvest : the incomer takes the seeds, fallow and pasture lands, at old Lady-day, but pays the rent for the whole of the land, both that which the outgoer's crop stands upon, and that which he himself takes from old Lady-day. Thus the outgoing tenant having the privilege of taking both the spring and winter crops, without either paying rent for the land they grew upon, or allowing his successor, the incomer, any part of them, the case of the latter be-

comes a very hard one, he having his first year's rent to make up, without the possibility of obtaining any return whatever for eighteen months; whilst the outgoer is paid for his seeds the value of them, and of the labour, and a certain rate per acre for any ploughing done by him during the winter for fallows; he is bound, however, to leave all the dung, for the benefit of the incomer.

MODE OF FARMING, IMPLEMENTS, &c.

The general system adopted in this county is two crops and a fallow: the fallow land is frequently sown half with wheat and half with barley: the most common rotation is—first, fallow; second, wheat; third, oats; or second, barley; third, beans: in some places wheat is sown on clover-leys and bean-stubbles, but this is very seldom done, either of the former rotations being found more suitable to the land.

The mode of farming in Cambridgeshire appears, to strangers, to be extremely singular, and at the same time to be very inferior to that practised in the adjacent counties. The ploughing here either for making a fallow, or at seed-time, can only be done in one way, that is to say, the land may be turned backwards and forwards in the same direction, but cannot be crossed; thus, in a barley, or other spring season, at seed-time, rushes or grass stand between the ridges in every furrow, frequently knee high: these furrows are commonly and properly called drains, as they are dug out one spit wide, with what may be denominated a whole furrow left on each side.

The land is laid up in ridges from twenty to twenty-four feet in breadth, and very high in the middle, in order that the water may the more rapidly run

off ; but a water furrow across a piece of land is scarcely ever seen, though it must be obvious that the less surface the water has to run over, the sooner the land will be drained. Were the land to be ploughed in ridges, a fourth or fifth of the size of the present ones, and laid up round, with a few water furrows drawn across, sufficiently deep, the ground would soon become much drier, and, consequently, work very differently in the spring to what it now does. The erroneous nature of the present system is, indeed, so evident, that the wonder is no attempt should be made to alter it, as every one must observe that upon the summit of the ridges the wheat flourishes and looks well, whilst from that point it gradually becomes sickly and yellow, until it reaches the drains, where much of it perishes.

Many of the farmers in this county, upon being asked if the land could not be laid in a different and better manner, reply, that the land in Cambridgeshire cannot be ploughed in the same way that it is in Norfolk, and, of course, there can be no comparison, because the soils are directly opposite in their nature and character ; but if they were to look at some of the heavy land in Essex, or Herefordshire, they would then see that their system might easily be altered for the better. As it is, it is difficult to imagine why such a course is continued, unless it be the labour, though that would be comparatively but little, that might be required to put the land into a different shape.

With the exception of the fens, draining, which is so essential to the land in this county, is but very little attended to ; and what is done, is chiefly at the expense of the tenant. The drains are principally formed by means of bushes and straw. If, however, only the surface

water was to be taken from the land, it would be a vast benefit, and it could be done much more effectually by laying the ground in a proper manner with the plough, than merely by draining.

The drill is generally used, as are likewise threshing machines, especially in the fen-lands. In many places a practice prevails of sowing the beans and ploughing them in.

The plough in use has generally one handle, but carries a staff, which is used as a handle, and also for cleaning the plough.

The outbuildings are chiefly of brick, and thatched, and are kept in repair by the landlord.

CHESHIRE.

THERE are few soils in the empire which can be considered richer than that of Cheshire, and its fertility is greatly increased by the aid of vast quantities of fine marl, found in many different parts of the county. Cheshire, generally speaking, is very flat, especially on the borders of Staffordshire and Derbyshire; but, what is rather unusual in so low a country, the soil is dry, and very productive.

The soil, for the greater part, is a red sandy loam, with a substratum of very excellent building-stone, under which the marl generally lies, to a great depth: in some places the land is a red clay, which produces very superior crops of wheat, and the pastures a great quantity of herbage.

The other principal productions of this county are salt and cheese; the latter is equally well known and approved of in every quarter of Europe, and by the sale of it a very large sum of money is annually realized in Cheshire. Its remarkably fine flavour is attributed to the sweetness of the pasture. It has been (to use a well-known phrase) the making of the county; but the saying that you may have too much of a good thing, may, perhaps, be justly applied here, as other branches of farming are much neglected.

PRACTICE OF TENANCY.

Farms are very commonly let upon leases; but the

mode of making the occupiers merely tenants at will is now much more in use than it was formerly.

All the farms are upon Candlemas takings, at which period a tenant enters upon the land, and commences ploughing for a spring crop; but he does not take possession of the house till May-day. The rents are paid half-yearly: all parochial taxes are paid by the tenant. The poor-rates are generally collected four times a year, except in the northern part of the county, where the rates are much heavier, and are oftener called for; this is owing to its bordering on manufacturing districts. This point being alluded to in the Introduction, it is unnecessary to say much more about it here. It will be seen, there, in what way the progress and improvement of manufactures have tended to increase the burdens upon the land in the shape of poor-rates, and how much, and to what extent, that increase has, of late years, been augmented, (if such an expression may be allowed,) whilst the soil, from the other burdens upon it being also greater than they were, whilst the prices to be obtained for its produce have decreased, has become less able to support the various and heavy charges imposed upon it,—a consideration of the utmost importance in the arrangement of any measure affecting agriculture. It is not alone the interests immediately connected with the land that suffer, but all classes engaged or employed in any species of business, feel most acutely the lamentable deficiency in their returns and profits, arising from the want of money on the part of their customers. It is, therefore, most essential to the welfare of the whole community, and even to the subsistence of the greater part of it, that agriculture should not be reduced to low prices.

The highway-tax is generally collected once a year, a

rate being assessed sufficient to pay for repairs during that period. It is, however, very moderate, a great part of the roads in Cheshire being paved like the streets in London, and consequently requiring comparatively but little repairing.

The great tithe, which is on corn, is generally valued every year, and either taken in kind, or compounded for: the small tithes, which are on various articles, are paid by a modus on each; the tithe or composition on dairies, where the number of cows do not exceed four, is two-pence per head; but on all kept above that number, the modus is doubled; and in some places the farmers pay sixpence per acre as a composition both for great and small tithes, on all the land.

CUSTOMS BETWEEN LANDLORD AND TENANT, AND THE
INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANT.

The profits of a farm in this county being chiefly dependent upon the dairy produce, a tenant is restrained by the landlord from having more than a given proportion of his land, generally about a third, under the plough at the same time. If he breaks up any land, without laying down the same quantity in grass, he is subjected to a penalty of ten pounds per acre, the amount of which is generally expended in manure. Upon that portion of land, however, which he is allowed to till, he is under no restriction whatever as to management, or rotation of crops. In some places the tenant is restrained from conveying away either hay or straw from the premises; but, respecting this point, the custom varies, and is not general.

An outgoing tenant ceases to work on the farm at

Candlemas, but he has to cut all the wheat crop, at harvest time, at his own expense: if the wheat was fallowed, he takes two-thirds of the crop; but if after any other crop, only one-half, which portion he houses himself. For the young seeds, he is generally paid nothing; but where the custom varies, as it does in some places, he cuts the clover or grass seeds himself, and takes half the hay, the incoming tenant taking the remaining parts of the crops, in order to indemnify himself for paying the rent and taxes from Candlemas to Michaelmas.

A tenant entering at Candlemas has the opportunity of ploughing for and sowing his spring crop, by which, with the addition of a part of the wheat, and the produce of the dairy, he is enabled to raise his first year's rent, and have on hand a sufficient quantity of wheat to sow the following year. He has no valuation of any kind to pay, and has the benefit of the dung left upon the farm, without any charge.

MODE OF MANAGEMENT, IMPLEMENTS, &c.

In this county potatoes generally stand first in rotation, if it can be so called; thus, the first crop is potatoes; second, oats; third, barley; fourth, wheat; and fifth, seeds: but very commonly—second, wheat; third, oats; and fourth, seeds. Upon a soil like this, it may be thought that oats should enjoy the fresh-broken up soil, and that an oat stubble would not require so much workmanship to be prepared for a potatoe season, as a piece of turf land; whilst the system might be improved by making potatoes the second, instead of the first crop. It is known to be unprofitable and injurious to the land to have two white crops successively, but the motive ope-

rating here for planting potatoes from the turf, is, that they do not require any manure to be put to them; the saving, however, of expense and trouble, by this plan, causes a double loss in the ensuing crops.

Lime is not nearly so much used as formerly, the marl being generally substituted for it; but soap waste, or the sediment remaining after boiling soap, called here soap ash, is much resorted to as a manure, and is considered very beneficial to the land.

The corn is generally sown by hand. Threshing machines are by no means common, but here and there a farmer, who has an extensive concern, makes use of them.

The outbuildings are of brick, and thatched: the repairs are generally made at the expense of the landlord, excepting the thatch, for which the tenant finds straw, and the landlord pays for workmanship.

CUMBERLAND.

THIS county is generally considered to be very healthy, though the air is very sharp and piercing. Almost every part of it is turned to a profitable account, though there is, perhaps, as much poor land in it as in most counties.

The mountains feed large flocks of sheep, and great numbers of cattle are also bred upon them, chiefly those of the Scots breed: the mountains likewise abound with valuable mines of various descriptions: the vallies are under most excellent management, and produce large crops of corn. The soil varies; towards the western part of the county it is a stiff clay, but in the interior it is light and sandy, and turnips are very extensively cultivated.

Stone dikes (as they are here called) are generally made for dividing the inclosures, which here, as well as in other counties where they are used, contribute very much to give a cold and bleak appearance to the country.

PRACTICE OF TENANCY.

The time for entering upon a farm is at Lady-day, but possession of the house is not given till May-day: the tenant, however, has the privilege of going upon the farm to plough for the spring crop at Candlemas.

The farms are usually let on leases, for three, seven, or nine years, but seven is the most general term; scarcely any exceed nine.

The rents are paid half-yearly: the poor-rates, which are very moderate, are generally collected three times

in the course of the year; the highway-tax is all collected, and the repairs of the roads are managed by the surveyor, who hires men, and pays for the work that is requisite to be performed.

The corn tithe is generally valued every year, and either taken in kind or compounded for; the small tithes have a permanent value set upon them, which is moderate and paid annually.

CUSTOMS BETWEEN LANDLORD AND TENANT, AND THE
INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANT.

A tenant is bound by the landlord to plough the land in such proportions, that a certain part of it may remain in grass for three years, and to have a regular succession in his crops; he is strictly prohibited from taking two white crops successively; and he is obliged to leave the same quantity of land in seeds when he quits the farm, as he found upon it when he entered into possession. He likewise covenants not to convey away hay or straw from the premises; and undertakes to lay not less than sixty Winchester bushels of lime per acre for his turnips or wheat, when sown upon a fallow.

An outgoing tenant has the privilege of retaining possession of the house, and of premises for his cattle until May-day; and he leaves the farm with the same advantages to his successor, that he received when he entered upon it.

When a tenant quits a farm, if his predecessor took, on leaving it, an outgoing crop of wheat, he does the same, or otherwise has it valued to the incoming tenant, if the latter chooses to take it; but if he found no wheat upon the farm when he entered, the incomer has

the option of sowing the wheat himself previous to the time of entry, and the outgoer leaves all the manure and straw (if there be any) for the incomer's benefit, but he is paid for the seeds in the ground, provided he paid in like manner on entering the farm.

An incoming tenant ploughs and sows all the spring corn : if the outgoer found a wheat crop upon the farm when he entered, and takes an offgoing crop when he quits, he is bound to pay rent and taxes for the land it grew upon till harvest time, and thresh it on the premises, leaving the straw for the benefit of his successor. The custom for the incoming tenant to enter the farm for the purpose of sowing the wheat crop before Candlemas, has arisen in consequence of some farmers cultivating barley in preference to wheat ; and thus if a tenant when he enters finds no land applied to the growth of wheat, he must leave it in the same state when he quits ; the next tenant may wish to cultivate wheat, and he has the liberty of doing so at entry, but he cannot sow the last wheat crop if he quits at the expiration of his lease.

MODE OF FARMING, IMPLEMENTS, &c.

The land is in general kept very clean and in excellent condition ; and considering the quality of it and the climate, there are not many counties superior to this in the productions of agriculture.

The rotation of crops, after the land has remained three years in grass, which is generally cut for hay one year, and fed two, is—first, oats ; second, turnips ; third, barley or wheat ; fourth, seeds : in the clay soil the wheat is generally fallowed, and the rotation is—first, oats ; second, fallow ; third, wheat ; fourth, seeds.

Turnips are sown very extensively, and the land is made by the number of sheep which are kept upon it; they are of the Highland breed, and are generally bought at the beginning of winter, and immediately put upon turnips; they are run very thick upon the ground, and through the hard living to which they have been accustomed, but a short time elapses before they are ready for the butcher.

With respect to the draining, the landlord generally cuts the drains and fills them in, and the tenant finds the stone, but the latter pays interest at the rate of about ten-pence in the pound sterling, for the money thus expended by the landlord. The drill is universally used for turnips, but not generally for corn: the single horse carts only are used either at harvest or at any other time: the ploughs in general use are of cast-iron; there are two horses to a plough, which are always driven double.

The outbuildings are commonly kept in repair by the landlord; they are constructed with a sort of red sandstone, which is very abundant in this county, and are covered with slate.

CARMARTHENSHIRE.

THE air of this county has generally been considered milder and more agreeable than that of the adjacent districts, on account of there not being so many mountains: the number of woods and rivers gives the county an appearance highly picturesque. Wild fowl are to be found here in great plenty. Salmon, and all kinds of fresh-water fish are extremely cheap, which, of course, contributes towards reducing the price of other sorts of provisions: coals are in great abundance: there are no manufactures worthy of particular notice carried on in any of the towns.

The soil is very fertile; it in general consists of a sandy loam: nor is there a finer land anywhere in Great Britain than is to be found in some parts of the county, either for the growth of turnips, or for the feeding of sheep. These advantages, however, are not here of much avail; as whatever requires a little trouble, or is over and above the natural productions of the land, is thought quite unnecessary, and is totally neglected.

There never existed, indeed, a country more erroneously conducted, as to its agriculture, than Carmarthenshire: nor does Wales, in general, produce one half of what it is capable of doing under proper management; and if, instead of sending them to distant colonies, a number of persons who cannot readily find subsistence in other parts of the empire, were located in Wales, there is no doubt that there would be an ample return

for the money laid out in improvement. There may be many objections in the way of carrying such a project into effect; but this subject having been already dilated upon in the Introduction, it is not necessary to pursue it any further here.

The people here are indolent, and being ignorant of the English language, they are not aware of the march of improvement in other quarters, whilst they are jealous of the interference of others with their long-cherished prejudices, being fully persuaded that their own system is in every respect the best. The English language must be understood amongst them before they will be enabled to equal their neighbours; or, at least, the English practice introduced as an example.

The sheep kept in this county are generally sold in the autumn, there being nothing to feed them upon in the winter: instead of growing turnips, and keeping the sheep till spring, when they might be sold, perhaps, at the rate of seven-pence or eight-pence per pound, besides making the land, the farmers sell them to other persons to feed, at only about three-pence per pound.

White clover grows naturally throughout the county, which strongly tends to show its fertility; and in various parts of it, there is some as fine grazing land as a bullock can be turned into. The county, however, is not entirely devoted to grazing, as on the banks of the Towy, two miles from Carmarthen, the land is ploughed close to the water's-edge and sown with corn; and though inundations frequently take place, and sweep away the crops, yet the farmers obstinately persist in the same system. It cannot but be considered as unfortunate that so fertile a spot should not be under better management.

PRACTICE OF TENANCY.

Farms were formerly let upon leases for three lives, but terms of fourteen years are now more common; they are entered upon at Michaelmas, when the incoming tenant takes possession of both house and land.

The rents are paid half-yearly: the poor-rates, which are heavy, are collected every month or six weeks: the highway-tax is half compounded for, and half worked out: there is in general a composition for tithes.

CUSTOMS BETWEEN LANDLORD AND TENANT, AND THE INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANT.

The tenant is in general under no restriction whatever, but is allowed to cultivate his land as he pleases. There are no stipulations as to manuring or cropping the land, or as to hay or straw, and even the manure is allowed to be sold, which is generally done when a tenant quits a farm. An outgoing tenant is paid for nothing when he leaves, nor, indeed, does he, scarcely in any instance, leave an article that is of any value; he sells all he can: if there should chance to be any seeds sown, the incoming tenant has the benefit of them; but he very rarely finds either seeds or dung, or anything else.

The incomer always sows the wheat crop, taking the season as he can, he not being allowed to enter upon the farm to plough before Michaelmas, without permission from the tenant in possession; but according to the mode of cultivation adopted in this county, ploughing the ground before that period is of little consequence.

MODE OF FARMING, &c.

The method acted upon in Carmarthenshire (it does

not deserve the name of cultivation) is, to sow but little wheat, and that generally upon a piece of old ley ground that has been down for six or seven years, upon which they lay a little lime, and what manure they can obtain round the house,—for as to keeping the dung together, or making the most of it, they have no idea of any such system ; and the ground is only once ploughed before the wheat is sown.

The first crop is wheat, after which there are regularly two crops of barley taken, and then oats are sown as long as they will grow. When the land is entirely exhausted, some farmers will be at the expense of a few grass seeds to lay it down, but others let it return again naturally to pasture, and it then has rest for six or seven years longer before it goes through the same round, only having a few beasts running upon it.

The ground is never half ploughed, nor are the cattle or implements employed capable of doing more. The team generally consists of a Welsh pony and a half-starved riding horse, or a pony and a pair of beasts, with a girl to drive them ; and the men use shovels with handles as long as pitchforks, in order to avoid stooping.

Neither drainage nor any other improvement is thought of ; there being a great abundance of lime that can be obtained at little expense, that material is constantly used, the farmers seeming to think it can do everything for them that is requisite ; but it is generally applied so very injudiciously, that it loses the greater part of its effect.

The outbuildings are in a very bad state : they are, or rather ought to be, kept in repair by the tenant ; they are principally constructed with stone and stone slate.

CORNWALL.

THE air in Cornwall is moister than in any of the neighbouring counties, which is, doubtless, caused by its being entirely surrounded by the sea, except where it joins to Devonshire; it forming a sort of peninsula, which, in some parts, is so narrow, that there is but a few miles' distance between the two channels.

The winds in Cornwall, blowing chiefly from the sea, are injurious to the tender plants and shrubs growing near the shore, and they likewise, more or less, affect the interior of the county; to which cause may be ascribed the circumstance of there being so little wood on the rising grounds, or that in any other quarter of the county such fine timber is not to be found as grows in the northern parts of the island, where the air is much sharper. Rain is more frequent here than in the more inland parts of England, but it is not so heavy as it is frequent; and although the storms here are more severe than in districts at a greater distance from the sea, yet they seldom continue long; and being succeeded by calms, also of short duration, the air is constantly changing, which, perhaps, contributes, in a greater degree, to promote the health of the inhabitants than if they resided more inland, especially as the noxious particles which cannot fail to arise from the mines, are thus dissipated, and rendered innocuous.

Both summer and winter here differ materially from the same seasons in other parts of England; the heat of the former not being so intense, nor the cold of the latter so piercing, myrtles being known to flourish in the midst

of the severity of winter, without any other protection than that of being sheltered from the sea-breezes.

The spring commences earlier than in other quarters, but the fruits of the earth are, notwithstanding, slower in ripening to perfection, and the harvest later, which may be attributed to the continual breezes of the sea, and to the reflection of the sun being less from the water than from the land.

This county, both with respect to its population and the various employments afforded them, is a spot quite distinct, as it were, from the rest of the kingdom. The inhabitants, not being subject to those sudden transitions from one extreme to another, which are felt elsewhere, enjoy a kind of medium totally unknown in many other districts. If an idea of this county was to be derived from what has frequently been said of it, it might be concluded to be slower or more backward in the career of improvement than any other district in England; but this is not the fact, it being, on the contrary, entirely a mistake; both the inhabitants, and the cultivation of the soil, being superior to what are to be found in many in more inland situations: the conversation of the lower classes especially frequently astonishes a stranger, it being of a superior character to that of the same order of people in many other parts of England.

The quality of the soil in Cornwall differs, as in other quarters, according to situation: the hills produce, upon the surface, little else but heath, moss, or furze; underneath, however, they contain abundance of wealth.

Rich spots of meadow land are, in many parts of the county, interspersed between the hills, which feed both sheep and cattle, great numbers of both being reared throughout Cornwall: the soil receiving the salt particles

washed down from the hills by the rain, the crops are, in general, very excellent.

The soil, though of various descriptions, is, in general, very light ; and whatever is the predominant quantity of any part of it, the whole is intermixed with a large proportion of gravel. In some parts of Cornwall the land consists of a shelvy or slaty earth, which bears corn better than the light black gravel ; but were the county subject to great droughts, this shelvy soil would not be of much advantage to the husbandman, as the corn and grass must, in that case, suffer considerably from the want of proper nutriment ; but this, as before observed, seldom occurs. There is another kind of soil here, of a reddish colour, and of a much closer texture, than those above-mentioned, and which is the most common in the east or south-eastern parts, where is to be witnessed the chief cultivation of the county.

This land, when properly manured, produces good crops of wheat, barley, rye, and oats, especially of the three last-mentioned kinds of grain, which ripen sooner, and arrive at greater perfection on the red soil, than when sown on other ground. The land is divided into what are termed hill and lowland farms ; the former carry great numbers of sheep, and, like many other parts, suffer most severely from the present very low price of wool. The county, however, derives its chief wealth and importance from its various minerals ; it contains numerous and very rich mines of copper, iron, and tin, and some which produce gold and silver, but the tin mines form its great source of prosperity : there are also extensive quarries of slate, and of different kinds of stone, particularly moor-stone, which is frequently used for mill-stones, as well as for building.

PRACTICE OF TENANCY.

Through the customs of tenancy acted upon in this county, farms are taken, as in many other quarters, under very great disadvantages; and although the inhabitants are fully aware of the necessity of an alteration, yet they are, equally with those of other districts, at a loss how to apply a remedy: being, in general, ignorant of any other practice than that they have been accustomed to, they listen, with the greatest astonishment, to any statement of the facility with which it might be altered, although to those who are acquainted with different customs, the remedy appears as simple as it is known to be efficacious.

The farms in Cornwall are generally held on leases for fourteen or twenty-one years: the time for entering upon them is Lady-day, with the privilege of going upon the land at the Midsummer preceding, to prepare for a certain number of acres of wheat, a given quantity of ground being reserved by the landlord for the incoming tenant: permission is likewise granted to enter at old Candlemas to plough for the spring crop; and to allow of the convenient performance of these operations, sufficient stable room is allowed for the cattle required, with either a cottage, or part of the house, from Midsummer.

The outgoer is, in return, allowed a cottage, or part of the house, with the use of the yards and buildings, and a piece of land, if required, for the purpose of using his straw until the old May-day succeeding his giving up possession; he leaves the dung on the premises for his successor, which, in most places, is considered an ample recompense for the tenure of the buildings till that time. Here, however, the advantage is given too much to the

incoimer ; and the outgoer, in his own defence, as it were, materially injures both his own interests, and those of his successor, as will be hereafter observed ; that a medium, therefore, is the best rule to establish, is strongly exemplified in this case, as well as others.

The rents are most commonly paid once a year ; the poor-rates are generally collected quarterly ; the highway-tax is half paid by composition, and half worked out ; the tithes are almost invariably adjusted by means of composition.

CUSTOMS BETWEEN LANDLORD AND TENANT, AND THE
INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANT.

A tenant in this county is subject to various restrictions with reference to the cultivation of his land.

He is bound not to exceed two white crops before he fallows and again manures his land ; he must also lay upon the ground not less than one hundred Winchester bushels of lime per acre, for the first crop : when the land is sowed down with grass seeds, he is prohibited from breaking up that ground within three years ; and, with the exception of water meadows, he is restrained from using the scythe for more than one crop, either on seeds or upland meadows, without having given the land some fresh manure, which amounts, in effect, to this, that he is compelled to manure the ground for every crop of hay that he takes from it after the first.

He is allowed to sell hay and *reeds**, but no other kind of straw ; and the hay allowed to be sold, is, in general, not permitted to exceed the produce of a certain number of acres, he being obliged to feed the remainder,

* Wheat straw.

together with the oat and barley straw, on the premises; the dung thus arising, he must leave for his successor.

The outgoer not being allowed, by the custom of the county, to have any interest in the last Michaelmas crop during the term of his lease, (which precedes, by six months, his giving up possession,) nor, if he puts it in the ground, to enter at harvest time to cut it, naturally never sows any; and although the incomer has the privilege of entering at Midsummer, (being nine months previous to the time from which he commences to pay rent,) to prepare the land for wheat, yet he cannot sow with it the same number of acres as if the farm was under a regular course of husbandry, but only the stated proportion reserved for that purpose by the landlord; notwithstanding, also, he has permission to plough for the spring crop at old Candlemas, he frequently finds that there is no land he can sow in the spring, the outgoing tenant, looking to his own interest, not having grown any wheat, as part of the last crop that he harvests, and, in consequence, having left no stubbles for his successor to commence ploughing upon. The outgoer, for obvious reasons, prefers to keep the land down in pasture; he, therefore, has no demand upon the incomer, the latter having the privilege of sowing the grass seeds in the spring preceding his entry upon the farm, in the outgoer's last spring crop.

The reason why a leaving tenant scarcely ever sows any wheat for the last year and a half of his lease, of course is, that he neither has the privilege of sowing the same land again for a spring crop at or previous to the time of giving up possession, nor can he sow other ground for a Michaelmas crop six months previous to quitting a farm; he, therefore, considers that the pasture

for a year and a half will pay him better than tilling and manuring a piece of land from which he can only take one crop, but must leave a benefit to the incomer, without receiving any compensation in return. If he were allowed to sow the last Michaelmas crop, which is six months previous to the termination of his lease, and get it the next harvest, or in some way to have an interest in it, he would feel that he had something like a *quid pro quo*, and for his own sake would keep the ground in proper order; but, under the present system, an outgoer prevents an incomer from having any spring corn during the first year, as there are no stubbles or other land to sow, at the same time preventing himself from having any wheat crop for his last harvest; and the latter can only break up the oldest lay ground upon the farm to sow with wheat as his first crop, sufficient to make up the number of acres reserved by the landlord; nor can he, for a long time, get his farm into a regular course of tillage.

MODE OF FARMING, IMPLEMENTS, &c.

Through the consequences of the practice at entry, a farmer in this county cannot possibly, in less than five or six years, even bring his land into a regular rotation, setting aside the difficulty he must necessarily have in putting it into a state of cultivation, it being generally when he first enters upon it nothing but a sheep walk.

This practice, as already observed, is injurious to both parties, but especially to the incomer, not only from the disadvantages and loss which he cannot fail to sustain during the first year, but from the inconvenience he must necessarily experience for a very considerable period.

Great quantities of different kinds of sand are used as

manure; some of which, when plentifully mixed with shells, which partake of the same qualities as lime, is found to be very useful; but those farmers who live near the coast use a variety of weeds, slime, and other articles, which they obtain from the sea, mixed with sand.

Lime is also employed in great quantities, and it is, in fact, the principal manure laid upon the land, excepting on those farms adjoining to or near the coast. The usual rotation for cropping the land is—first, wheat from a lay; second, oats; third, potatoes or turnips; fourth, barley; fifth, seeds, which remain down at least three years.

Oxen are, in many parts, regularly employed in ploughing the ground, and are a great benefit to it, the soil being generally very light; the plough commonly used is a single-wheel plough.

Great improvements have been made in various quarters by means of draining the land: the drains chiefly consist of stone, and are generally made at the expense of the landlord, the tenant allowing for the money thus laid out, at the rate of seven or eight per cent.

The outbuildings in the western quarter of the county are chiefly constructed of stone and slate, an abundance of these materials being to be found there; but in the eastern part they are principally thatched: the thatch is kept in order by the tenant, but in other respects the repairs are made at the cost of the landlord.

DERBYSHIRE.

THE principal manufactures in this county are those of silk and stockings; the chief productions are lead, iron, coal, and limestone: Derbyshire is also noted for various species of spar, some of them very remarkable.

The northern, and great part of the eastern sides of the county, are mountainous and very barren, but the deficiency on the surface is amply compensated for, by the produce of the mines below, from which are derived considerable sums of money, and where a vast number of hands are constantly employed.

A much greater proportion of the land is devoted to pasture than to cultivation, and towards the northern part of the county, or rather to the north of the inclosed land, a traveller may proceed for miles without seeing an acre of arable land, there being nothing but a continuation of pasture both upon the hills and in the vallies.

The climate is cold, and the land is, in general, extremely wet, an inconvenience, which, except in the southern part of the county, very little pains is taken to remedy.

PRACTICE OF TENANCY.

The farms are generally upon a small scale, and the tenants chiefly hold at will. The period of entering upon a farm is at Lady-day, at which time a tenant takes possession both of the house and land, but he is not allowed to enter upon the farm to plough, or commence any work without obtaining permission, before the outgoing tenant has given up possession.

The rents are paid regularly half-yearly: the poor-rates, which are generally very heavy, are collected once a month; in some places they amount to 20s. per acre: the highway-rate is levied by a rate of 6d. in the pound, but it is most commonly outtax by labour: the tithes are scarcely ever collected; in many parts there is an allotment of land in lieu of them, but where that is not the case, they are generally paid by composition, at the rate of 2s. 6d. per acre.

CUSTOMS BETWEEN LANDLORD AND TENANT, AND THE
INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANT.

In the northern part of the county, the farms are let under much more binding stipulations than in any other quarter, a practice which has arisen in consequence of the payment of the rents being entirely dependent upon the produce of the dairy. Scarcely any of the farms in the former district have more than three or four acres of arable land attached to them, which is not sufficient for domestic consumption, and many have none whatever: a tenant is restrained from breaking up any pasture land without permission, even if he lays down arable land instead of it; he is also restricted from conveying away either hay or straw from the premises under any circumstances. In the southern or cultivated parts, the landlords are not nearly so strict (although the dairy is much depended upon throughout the county), the tenants being generally allowed to break up what pasture land they please, if they think it advantageous to them to do so, provided it is not done to any particular field or fields, adjoining to or near the house, the breaking up of which had been objected to at the time of entry.

The general custom is, for an outgoing tenant to be

allowed nothing for the dung he leaves upon a farm, and frequently nothing for the straw, it being at the option of the incomer either to take the straw or not; if he does not, the outgoer is bound to feed and use both the hay and straw upon the premises, and the incomer has the advantage of the manure. The outgoer always sows the wheat crop, but is not paid for any fallows or ploughings which may have been done at his expense, for the growth of it; he receives, however, for the labour employed upon the wheat, two-thirds of the crop if fallowed for, and if a brush crop, one half: the incomer receives the remainder of the crop by paying rent for the land upon which it grows till harvest time; with respect to the young clovers or grass seeds, the outgoer is generally allowed for the seed and the labour.

A tenant entering upon a farm, sows the spring crop, but if he wishes to plough the land before Lady-day, he must obtain permission from the outgoer: the latter, however, cannot plough the land himself and charge it, without the sanction of his successor: a tenant takes possession of a farm free of all expense, excepting having to pay for the seeds on the ground, which, of course, he cannot avoid, when sown by the outgoer.

MODE OF FARMING, IMPLEMENTS, &c.

The soil, in the southern part of the county, is, in general, a strong heavy land, and is chiefly cultivated: almost all the fallowed wheat is ploughed in: beans are a very common crop, after which wheat is found to grow much kindlier than in any other rotation.

With regard to the mode or frequency of cropping the land by the tenant, there is no restriction whatever.

From a lay, the rotation generally is—first, oats; second, turnips, or fallow; third, barley, or wheat; fourth, seeds; fifth, beans; sixth, wheat: very little barley, however, is grown upon this land; the principal crops are wheat and beans. There is no particular preference given in Derbyshire to any one particular breed of cattle; some like best the long-horned or Staffordshire breed, and others the short-horned, or Durham breed, but the former are much more general than the latter: the value of the Durham breed at the first purchase being much greater than that of the other, many are prevented from keeping them; but there is a breed lately introduced, a cross between the above-mentioned two, which is much sought after, and is rapidly increasing, and which is considered to possess most of the good qualities of each.

The drill is but rarely used: the same is the case with the threshing machine: the plough most commonly in use runs upon two wheels, one in the furrow and the other upon the whole ground; the one that runs in the furrow is nearly as high again as the other, which places the plough upon a level, and keeps it at an even depth.

The horses are always driven in length; three or four are most commonly used to a plough. There is but very little draining in any part of the county, and what is done is generally at the sole expense of the tenant; the material chiefly used for this purpose is the draining tiles. The out-buildings, especially in the northern part of the county, are upon a very limited scale, affording but very little comfort for the cattle; they are generally built of brick, and thatched, but many of them are sided with weather boarding; the repairs are generally done at the expense of the tenant, the landlord finding rough timber.

DENBIGHSHIRE.

THIS county being greatly diversified by mountains and vallies, the soil is, of course, equally various, being in some parts extremely barren, and in others sufficiently fertile to produce almost all the necessaries of life. In many places the land is not cultivated at all, nor are there any inhabitants, with the exception of a few poor cottagers, who live in the utmost penury, and are subjected to nearly all the privations that human nature can endure.

In other parts, the inhabitants participate in every luxury derivable from the produce of the earth, the land being capable not only of bearing excellent crops of every kind of grain, but also of affording pasture for all sorts of cattle.

The vallies are, for the greater part, extremely fertile, particularly that near the town of Denbigh, called the Vale of Clwyd, which produces the necessaries of life not only in abundance for the inhabitants, but in ample sufficiency to spare, to supply the wants of their neighbours.

Many horned cattle are also fed in the vallies; both fresh-water and sea-fish are here in great plenty.

The hills feed vast numbers of sheep; the soil in those parts is very well adapted for the growth of rye and oats: the crops of the latter grain are particularly abundant upon the summit of the hills; they are produced by adopting the system of burning the turf as a manure.

The principal manufactures are those of gloves at Denbigh, where more are made than at any town in

Wales, and of flannel at Wrexham: they not only employ a great number of hands, but greatly contribute towards enriching the district; and thus Denbighshire may be considered one of the most flourishing counties in North Wales.

The climate is remarkably mild in the vallies; snow scarcely ever lies for any long time upon the ground: rain, however, is as prevalent here as snow is in Scotland, and considerable damage is frequently occasioned by the inundations of the rivers.

PRACTICE OF TENANCY.

The mines and quarries being here the principal object of attention, the cultivation of the soil becomes a secondary consideration with its proprietors, whose income is generally more profitably derived from the former: thus, if the rent is regularly paid by the tenant, he is left to manage his land pretty much as he pleases.

The farms in Denbighshire are usually small; they are let only by the year. Two different periods are in use for entering upon a farm, the one in the Uplands, and the other in the Lowlands. The Upland farms, which are entirely devoted to the breeding of sheep, are entered upon at Lady-day; in the Lowlands, the time for taking possession is on St. Andrew's day (the 30th of November); in either case the house is not inhabited by the incoming tenant till May-day.

The rents are paid half-yearly: all parochial taxes are discharged by the tenant: the poor-rates, which are 6*d.* in the pound upon the full rent, are collected as often as required: there being no parish or workhouses, the paupers, who are infirm or disabled, generally live with some

of their relations, the parish paying a part or the whole of the rent: the highway-tax is, by all, who have employment for horses, outset by labour; those who hold only pasture or upland ground, pay at the rate of 6*d.* in the pound upon the full rent, towards the repairing of the roads: the tithes are all taken in kind; the incumbents let them in the different townships or quarters of a parish, to any one disposed to give a sufficient rent for them. The great tithes include hay, corn, and potatoes; the small tithes are very numerous, such as on lamb, wool, cows, pigs, geese, &c.; there are, also, the Easter dues, which every family, even the poorest, are called upon to pay.

CUSTOMS BETWEEN LANDLORD AND TENANT, AND THE
INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANT.

A tenant is not restricted by the landlord in any way, either as to the cultivation or the cropping of the land, but is allowed to farm it in whatever mode he prefers, and he is likewise allowed the privilege of selling hay and straw: it is customary, however, for the outgoing tenant to feed his hay and straw till May-day; and the dung which is made during the winter is taken by the incomer, at a price agreed upon between them. From the wheat which the outgoer sows in the autumn previous to quitting the farm, he has half the produce for his seeds and labour; and the incomer cuts and binds the crop at harvest, and pays the rent from the time he takes the farm for the remaining half. A considerable quantity of clover seed is saved in this county, and at Wrexham Fair, the store of this and other grass seeds is as large as at any other provincial town in Great Britain. But

although the seed is so generally saved, very little notice is taken of the young seeds upon the ground when a tenant quits: some farmers require to be paid for them, and some do not; the most usual practice is not to pay for them. If, however, there are any turnips upon the farm, the incoming tenant is called upon to purchase them, otherwise they are sold to some other person; but turnips are very rarely seen, that species of produce being considered by the farmers here as a waste or unprofitable employment of the land.

The farmers never think of receiving any sum worth mentioning upon quitting a farm; a change of tenants, however, very seldom takes place, it being the custom in North Wales, when a death happens, for the next heir to take possession of the concern, and thus many families have, for a century past, resided upon the same spot.

MODE OF FARMING, IMPLEMENTS, &c.

Barley, oats, and potatoes, are the principal productions of the cultivated land; wheat, beans, and peas, are grown in some of the vallies, but no attention whatever is paid to any rotation; whichever kind of grain there happens to be the greatest demand for, that is sown in the largest quantity. Sometimes wheat is sown after barley or oats; sometimes that mode is reversed: there is, in fact, no regular system, nor do the farmers appear to have any idea of one.

It is a frequent practice to burn the surface, both of fresh inclosed lands, and of old clover lays; and it is thought not to impoverish the land by repetition; whilst it is considered preferable to any manure they can get either for corn or turnips.

The expense of breast-ploughing the land and burning the surface does not exceed 21s. per acre; the former is done early in the winter, and the burning in the spring, which gives the turf time to rot. To facilitate the surface burning, the turf is always turned up to the sun in the spring to dry; nothing is then required but a few furze-bushes to set it on fire; the fires are scarcely ever kindled till after sunset or towards night, it being found that they burn much better during the night than in the day.

Lime is a very material aid to agricultural operations in this county, and is universally resorted to; it is used for every kind of grain, and very frequently on meadow land immediately after the hay is carried off, in order to destroy the moss: salt, however, has been lately applied for that purpose, and with a much better effect; it is bought at the reasonable price of 20s. a ton.

The tenants holding at will, the repairs of the out-buildings are done at the expense of the landlord; the greater part of them are built with stone and slate, (those materials being in great abundance,) but the very old standings are constructed with loose stones, and thatched.

DEVONSHIRE.

THIS county being of great extent, and much diversified by hills and vallies, the air and soil naturally vary; on the hills the former is extremely sharp, whilst in the vallies it is mild and serene. The interior of Devonshire is remarkably fertile; the eastern part contains many barren hills, and towards the west are mountains and extensive moors: the last-mentioned district resembles some of the bleakest spots in Cumberland.

The western side of Devonshire abounds with granite, to procure which for the use of the metropolis employs a great number of hands. Towards the south there are large quantities of marble, which is frequently found in rocks of considerable size, and is often perceptible even in the high roads.

Towards Cornwall, the soil being moorish and barren, very few sheep can be bred there, nor do they ever arrive at any degree of perfection; but considerable numbers of cattle are reared, which are bought by the drovers, to send into other parts of the kingdom.

In Devonshire, where the woollen manufacture is carried on in all the inland towns, the breeding of sheep cannot fail to be of the utmost advantage; but with the exception of the northern parts on the Bristol Channel, where there are fine dry downs, very few of those useful animals are reared in the county.

With the aid of lime, dung, and sand, the northern parts produce good crops of corn, though not equal to

those of the south : near the sea the same manure is used as in Cornwall, namely, sea-weeds, &c.

The soil is, in general, a reddish kind of land, differing in quality according to situation ; in the south it is chiefly a red sand, which produces vegetables, and all kinds of grain, equal to any in the kingdom.

On some parts of the coast the sand is of such a peculiar nature that the distant farmers frequently procure it, in order to apply it to the poorest spots, which are by this means not only rendered fertile for a time, but the quality of the soil is entirely changed ; the meadows and pasture land are rendered very fertile by the application of shell-sand, similar to that used in Cornwall. The orchards are, on the western side of the county, greatly depended upon, they annually realizing considerable sums, through the cider that is made from them ; but they are not equal to those in Worcestershire or Herefordshire. The dairies are, generally speaking, the most important source of profit in Devonshire. This county was formerly celebrated for its copper, lead, and tin mines ; the latter do not produce nearly so plentifully as heretofore, nor are any of them now so extensively worked as they were. Stone of all descriptions is found in great abundance ; the inclosures in the western part of the county are chiefly divided by stone dikes, and some of the stones of which they are formed are very remarkable for their immense magnitude.

PRACTICE OF TENANCY.

In the western part of the county, or on that side of Exeter, the general practice is to enter upon a farm at Michaelmas, with the privilege of going upon the land

at Midsummer, to prepare for the wheat crop, but the outgoer retains the use of the barns and yards, with part of the house, till the ensuing Midsummer, for the purpose of threshing the corn and feeding the straw: in other parts of Devonshire, the customary time of entry is, in general, Lady-day; previous to which period the incomer cannot go on the land to commence ploughing for the spring crop, without permission from the tenant then in possession, who, in this case also, has the use of the out-premises, and part of the house, till Midsummer; but there are exceptions, where the landlord reserves a right for the incomer to enter before Lady-day: it is, however, usually left to the option of the tenant in possession.

The rents are, in most places, paid half-yearly; the poor-rates are, in general, collected quarterly; the highway-tax is most frequently offset by performing duty upon the roads; the tithes are paid by composition.

CUSTOMS BETWEEN LANDLORD AND TENANT, AND THE INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANT.

A tenant in this county is restrained from taking more than two white crops for a fallow, and is prohibited from sowing two wheat crops successively, having neither a fallow nor a green crop between them; but he is at full liberty to sow any other kind of straw crop after wheat, excepting wheat again.

He is likewise, in most places, bound to use a certain quantity of lime per acre for his barley or wheat crop, and to leave the same quantity of land for a wheat crop at the expiration of his lease, that he found when he entered into possession.

A tenant has, in general, throughout the county, the liberty of selling hay and reeds, (wheat straw,) but he is obliged to feed all the oat and barley straw upon the premises: at the termination of his lease he has also the privilege of selling or removing the hay from the farm; but he must clear it away by the Midsummer after he gives up possession, and that without doing any damage to the succeeding tenant.

It is customary for a tenant quitting a farm under a Lady-day taking, to receive from his successor the value of the wheat upon the ground, and likewise of the young clovers, or other grass seeds, as estimated by two or more individuals applied to or employed for that purpose: a tenant, leaving at Michaelmas, can only demand the value of the seeds: the incomer has, at either of these times of entry, the privilege of ploughing his own crops and fallows, merely with this difference, that under the Michaelmas taking he can go upon the land for that purpose at Midsummer, as specially reserved by the landlord; whilst under a Lady-day entry the outgoer has, in this respect, an option of either allowing his successor to enter at Candlemas, or, through ill nature and opposition, of preventing him from ploughing the land before Lady-day, which frequently occasions great loss to the incoming tenant: for all the dung, however, made upon the premises, the incomer pays nothing, he claiming it, according to the custom of the county, for the benefit of the land.

MODE OF FARMING, IMPLEMENTS, &c.

The present state of agriculture in Devonshire is far short of that perfection which it has attained in many counties; but, generally speaking, the land here is better cultivated than in Somersetshire.

The most usual rotation is—first, wheat from a lay ; second, barley or oats ; third, seeds : or, first, wheat ; second, turnips ; third, wheat : the latter, if it were properly managed, would, from the quality of the soil, and the nature of the climate, answer extremely well ; but there is, throughout the county, much want of a regular system.

The farmers, in most parts, to avoid the trouble attendant upon the dairy, let their cows to a dairyman by the year, at a certain rate per head ; the latter, in that case, reaps the greatest share of the profit ; but when a farmer and his wife are sufficiently industrious to manage the dairy themselves, they are frequently known to raise money enough by that means to cover the amount of their rent.

The Devonshire breed of cattle is much celebrated, and great numbers of them are reared here, especially in the western parts of the county, the soil of which is not sufficiently rich to produce supplies for the dairies.

These cattle are considered profitable in the dairy, and they are likewise quick in preparing for the butcher ; but their weight is much less than that of many other kinds of cattle, which, in appearance, are equally proportioned.

The corn is sown by hand, and invariably threshed by the flail : this operation is performed here in a different manner to what it is in most counties, the wheat straw being never bruised, but, on the contrary, remaining as stiff as it was on the day when it was cut, for which reason it is called reeds.

The straw, though not in the least bruised, is generally very clean, no other part but the ears ever receiving the blows from the flail, which is continually combed out and shaken : it is remarkable how much longer straw threshed

in this manner will lie as thatch, than when it is bruised, as the water not only runs from it more freely, but it dries much more rapidly than the straw which has undergone the threshing that is ordinarily practised.

There is, in many parts, much want of attention with regard to freeing the land from surface water ; the drawing water-furrows and draining being equally neglected, notwithstanding the landlords are, in general, at the expense of cutting the drains, the tenants having only to fill them in.

The outbuildings towards the western side of the county are chiefly constructed of stone, and thatched ; in the interior they are more frequently mud buildings, the repairs of which are made at the expense of the landlord, the tenant finding a certain number of bundles of reeds, every year, for the thatch.

DORSETSHIRE.

MANY parts of this county lying very much exposed are bleakly situated, but in the vallies and towards the coast the air is particularly mild and pleasant. There is a considerable proportion of down-land in Dorsetshire, which contains abundance of chalk, and although in some quarters very hilly, is generally fertile, especially in the vale forming part of the western side of the county, and also the tract of ground bordering on the coast ; both these districts are chiefly devoted to the supply of the dairies, by the sale of the produce of which a very large sum of money is annually realized. The principal part of the profit is derived from butter, which is chiefly sent

to the London markets; the cheese is only a secondary consideration, it being made from the skimmed milk, and in general consumed within the county.

The soil in the vale is very heavy working land, it consisting of a strong red clay, but the soil in general is of a chalky nature: the range of hills which advance thus far from the south-eastern part of England, terminate at the extremity of this county.

The eastern part of the county is abundantly productive in all kinds of grain, with the exception of a considerable extent of forest land, reaching from the neighbourhood of Blandford to the borders of Hampshire. The northern districts afford in various situations good pasture for cattle, and feed immense flocks of sheep upon the hills, for the breed of which Dorset is particularly celebrated, its sheep being considered preferable to any other, both for fattening their lambs and bringing them much forwarder in the season.

This county is distinguished for its woollen manufactures, and likewise for excellent beer: the principal productions, however, are, butter, corn, wool, and hemp; the cultivation of the last-mentioned article is now greatly lessened compared with its former extent, but another trade has risen instead, to great importance, namely that in stone, in which a number of hands are employed at Portland, in preparing it for the metropolis and other quarters.

PRACTICE OF TENANCY.

The time of entry in this county varies more perhaps than in any other; but the advantages or disadvantages produced differ but little, the essential point of a light or easy entry being generally studied and carried into effect.

The most usual period for entering on a farm is Michaelmas, with the privilege of commencing ploughing for the wheat crop at Midsummer; but on the western side of the county, Lady-day is very commonly the time, with the privilege of entering at Candlemas to prepare for the spring crop; this latter practice however is chiefly confined to that part of Dorset.

The cow and sheep leases are entirely separate takings from the rest of the land; the former, under a Lady-day entry, generally terminate at the Candlemas preceeding the expiration of the farm lease, and the latter at the ensuing Midsummer: under a Michaelmas entry, the sheep and farm leases both commonly end at the same time, and the cow leases at Candlemas.

The farms are in general let for fourteen or twenty-one years; the rents are in most places paid once a year: the poor-rates, which are very heavy, especially in the western districts, are collected quarterly; the highway-tax is usually outset by labour; the tithes are most frequently paid by composition.

CUSTOMS BETWEEN LANDLORD AND TENANT, AND THE
INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANT.

A tenant in this county is in general bound to leave a farm with the same privileges and advantages attached to it, for the benefit of his successor, that he received when he entered upon it; such as leaving the same quantity of clover or other grass seeds, the same number of acres for a wheat season, and allowing the same privilege of entering for the purpose of commencing its preparation.

He is likewise bound to expend all the hay and straw upon the premises, and is restrained from taking two

crops of the same kind of grain successively, such as wheat after wheat; but there is in general no restriction with regard to having two white crops in succession, as oats or barley after wheat, excepting in some parts of the eastern districts, where a tenant is bound to sow turnips in his wheat stubbles, or some other kind of green crop: this restriction has not long been introduced, but its effects are already evident.

An outgoing tenant, under a Lady-day taking, harvests his own crop of wheat, which he cuts and threshes upon the premises, leaving the straw or dung for the benefit of the incomer: he has for this purpose the privilege of retaining part of the house, with sufficient barn and yard room till the next Lady-day; but he has no demand upon his successor, excepting for the value of the seed and labour for the clover or other artificial seeds upon the ground: under a Michaelmas taking, if the outgoer cuts the seed hay himself, he has no demand upon the incomer, the latter having the privilege of sowing the seeds for that year in the barley crop of the preceding spring; but if the incomer is allowed to cut the clover hay at Midsummer, which is sometimes the case, he has to pay the same value for those seeds as a tenant entering at Lady-day.

A tenant, quitting at Michaelmas, has his last year's crop to thresh, and is bound to use the straw and feed the hay, if he cuts it, on the premises, by the ensuing Lady-day; if he has a crop of turnips, he has the privilege of feeding them also, with the rest of his fodder, until the same period.

MODE OF FARMING, IMPLEMENTS, &c.

The cultivation of the land in the western districts is

not at all equal to that in the east: this does not arise so much from any marked variance in soil or situation, as from the difference in the restrictions with regard to management.

Generally speaking, no manure is used for turnips, it being employed in preference for wheat; the latter grain is invariably sown from a clover gratton, which has been down two years, once cut for hay, and once fed.

The manure is carted out in the winter, and the sheep are folded upon it until they tread it well into the earth: during the spring and summer they are constantly feeding on the grattons; but when this ground is ploughed up for a wheat crop, the grass upon it is frequently quite rank, arising from the effects of the manure: these grattons, however, generally produce very abundant crops. There is in many places an additional or substituted practice, of always folding the sheep upon the green wheat in the spring, which is found very beneficial upon the light land.

The general rotation of cropping is—first, wheat, from a two years old gratton; second, turnips or tares; third, barley or oats; fourth, seeds; but in the western districts the most common rotation after wheat is—second, oats; third, fallow or turnips; fourth, barley; fifth, seeds.

The dairies in Dorsetshire are very large; they are rarely looked after by the occupiers, but are generally let, and many of the dairymen are known to have made large fortunes by the sale of their produce.

Plantain as an artificial grass is very much sown in this county, and likewise in the adjoining ones of Hants and Wilts, it being particularly kindly and productive on chalky soils for sheep feed.

The plough more generally used than any other is a single wheel one, which is drawn by three horses, the two hindmost being driven double, and supporting a chain, to which the other is attached. The chain is sustained by another of a smaller size, or a strap, which is fastened round the neck of each horse, and separates the two hindmost in the same way as a carriage pole; but they do not draw by means of it, their traces being shorter than the chain, and only supporting it for the foremost horse, and to keep it away from their legs.

The land, from its natural quality and situation, is, generally speaking, dry, and requires no draining; but where there is an exception, and the soil can be improved by it, the landlord frequently disburses the money required for the purpose, the tenant paying a per centage for the sum thus expended.

The corn is chiefly sown by hand, and the turnips and grass seeds by the seed machine; the threshing machines are in general use on all the large farms.

The outbuildings, which are most of them but on a moderate scale, are constructed of brick or stone, with thatched roofs; the repairs, after being properly looked to at the commencement of a lease, are invariably kept up at the tenant's expense, the landlord however finding all the materials excepting the straw for the thatch.

DURHAM.

OWING to the steep mountains on the western side of this county, a part of it is very barren; but those portions of that quarter which abut upon Yorkshire, are fertile and well cultivated: many large tracts have, of late years, been inclosed; and although the soil is inferior to that in the eastern part, yet they are rendered equally productive by superior management, and through the prevailing practice of tenancy. All kinds of provisions are very plentiful in this county. The principal articles of produce, however, are coal, lead, and iron; and its wealth is chiefly derived from its inexhaustible veins of coal and lead, from which, and those of the neighbouring county of Northumberland, the markets of London, and many other places, are regularly supplied.

The breed of cattle, which is peculiar to Durham, meets with general approbation; and it is, perhaps, more widely diffused than any other: the advantages it possesses of being at once quick to fatten, heavy in the scale, and profitable in the dairy, do not attach, in the same degree, to any breed except the Durham.

PRACTICE OF TENANCY.

Farms, in the western part of the county, are more commonly let on leases than by the year; but in other quarters they are generally held at will. The time for entering is May-day, when possession is given of the house and land, but the outgoing tenant is bound to free all the pasture lands by Lady-day. The rents are paid half-yearly: the poor-rates, which are very moderate, are

generally collected six or seven times in the year : the highway-tax, which is also light, is usually all worked out : the tithes, both great and small, upon corn, potatoes, turnips, &c., are, in many places, taken in kind ; hay is not generally considered titheable, but for every beast or fowl reared by the farmer, a modus is claimed.

CUSTOMS BETWEEN LANDLORD AND TENANT, AND THE
INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANT.

With regard to management, the custom between landlord and tenant generally is, for the latter to make a fourth of his land fallow every year, or, rather, to divide it equally, that is to say, to have one-fourth turnips, or fallow, one-fourth seeds, one-fourth spring-corn, and the remaining part wheat : some landlords, however, allow a division of three parts, viz., one-third seeds and fallow, one-third spring corn, and one-third wheat : the last-mentioned system has been lately introduced, in consequence of its having been discovered that once in four years was too often regularly to sow clover ; more corn is, therefore, sown in the spring, and there is a less quantity of seeds ; the laying of corn is generally increased by peas or tares.

An outgoing tenant gives up possession of the house and arable land at May-day, but the seeds, pasture, and meadow land, he quits at Lady-day ; if, however, the incomer does not agree to pay for the crop of seeds, the outgoer is at liberty to feed them till May-day : it is at the option of the former, either to take them by paying for the seed and labour, or to allow the latter to feed them till May-day. The outgoer takes an offgoing crop of all the corn, but he is restrained from sowing more than two-thirds of the arable land, and is bound to leave the seeds and fallow for the incomer : if the laying of

corn exceeds the given number of acres, the latter claims all that is sown over and above the stipulated quantity without any payment.

In consequence of the outgoer taking the whole of the spring and Michaelmas crops, the incomer is prevented from having any corn during the first year and a quarter: the corn, however, cannot be removed from the farm, and the outgoer has the use of the yards and barns to thresh it, and make use of the straw until the May-day subsequent to harvest time; but he is bound to leave all the manure, for the benefit of the incomer.

The first year's rent falls heavy upon the tenant who has just entered into possession, he having, under the above system, to raise it from only one-third of the land; and some landlords, in order to give the new occupier a better chance, takes only half a year's rent the first twelve months, and so on, regularly leaving six months in arrear, receiving the last half year when that period has expired after the tenant has given up the farm; and as the outgoer has to thresh the last crop on the premises, the half year's rent thus in arrear is perfectly secure. The rents are, indeed, in this way, regularly paid, as, through the continuance of the system, the landlord receiving half a year from the outgoer six months after the expiration of his term, and the same from the incomer twelve months after the commencement of his occupancy, receives the whole amount of rent in the course of the year; it is only at the first commencement of such a system that there is, in this respect, any deficiency.

MODE OF FARMING, IMPLEMENTS, &c.

Turnips are generally cultivated throughout the county, but to a much greater extent and more profitably in the

western than in the eastern parts. In the latter, the land is suffered to remain in such a neglected and saturated state, that it will not bear sheep upon it during the winter to feed the turnips, which it becomes necessary, in consequence, to pull, and they are fed upon pasture-land either by cattle or sheep, but chiefly by the former. This great disadvantage is attributable to springs on the sides of the hills, which are thus suffered to destroy, as it were, the land. A remedy might, of course, be easily applied; but the farmers being, in general, only tenants at will, have no interest in making improvements. The existence, however, of such an evil is an evident proof of great want of management in some quarter.

The western side of the county, although the soil is very inferior to that in the east, presents a much better aspect, and is tolerably well managed: the rotation generally followed is—first, turnips or fallow; second, barley or wheat; third, seeds, tares, or peas; fourth, oats; and, if conducted as it ought to be, there can scarcely be a better.

The manure chiefly in use is lime, which is to be had at a very reasonable rate, there being such a profusion of coals and limestone: the quantity generally used per acre is from seventy to eighty bushels; and where the land is dry, the effects are visible in the astonishing crops of clover which it produces, whilst those of wheat are equally good. The vast benefit derived from the lime is generally attributed to the greater abundance of vegetable matter arising from the turnips and sheep, which it becomes mixed with, than there is to be found upon a fallow, when it is laid upon the land for a Michaelmas crop of wheat in double the quantity.

With respect to the draining, the landlord generally

pays for cutting and filling-in the drains, and the tenant finds the stone : in the western part of the county, drainage, which is so highly essential to good farming, has been extensively carried into effect ; but in the east it has been sadly neglected as well as many other practices of great utility ; the system followed in that quarter is very similar to that acted upon in many parts of Yorkshire.

The drill is generally used for turnips : in many places great part of the corn is sown by hand : threshing machines are but partially employed.

The horses are, for the most part, light-made, and very active ; not more than two are ever used to a plough : the Scots plough is most commonly in use : all the carting is done by small single-horse carts, waggons being scarcely ever seen.

The outbuildings are generally small, and the cottages apparently rather comfortless : they are chiefly built with stone and pantiles, and are kept in repair at the expense of the landlord.

ESSEX.

THOSE parts of Essex which border upon the Thames, and upon the sea, are considered very unhealthy, especially with reference to strangers, who seldom escape agues, the usual effect of a damp and foggy atmosphere ; but the northern and western quarters are as salubrious and delightful as any district in England.

It is a common observation, that places which are in many respects unpleasant have also peculiar advantages : thus the marsh lands in Essex afford excellent pasture ; nor is there a county in England where provisions in general are in greater plenty. The London markets are supplied from hence with vast quantities of corn and vegetables, and great numbers of calves and sheep ; horses which are peculiarly well adapted for the saddle are also reared here, but there are very few beasts bred of any kind.

The land in Essex is very variable: its general character is a light, free-working soil ; but in many parts it is poor, stiff, and very cold, especially where clay chiefly predominates, as it does even upon some of the highest ground.

PRACTICE OF TENANCY.

The farms in Essex are most commonly let on leases for seven or fourteen years : the usual time for entering is at Michaelmas, when possession is given both of the house and land. With respect to the management of the ground, certain restrictions and rotations are generally required by the landlord to be complied with by the tenant.

The rents are paid once a year: the poor-rates are in most places usually collected quarterly: the highway-tax is either paid, or outset by working on the roads at the rate of six days, with two horses and a cart and two men, for every hundred acres: the tithes are in general compounded for every year, if the tenant and the incumbent or the collector can agree; the great tithes include hay and all kinds of grain; the small tithes, vegetables, and the herbage of the pasture.

CUSTOMS BETWEEN LANDLORD AND TENANT, AND THE
INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANT.

It is customary for a tenant to dress and fallow his land after every third crop, and never to take two white crops in succession: on pasture land, however, he is not restricted either as to mowing, manuring, or grazing; nor is he restrained from conveying away hay or straw from the farm; but for every load of either so carried off, he is bound to bring back a load of dung: in some places bordering upon Middlesex, two loads of dung are required for every load of straw, and only one for hay.

The outgoing tenant sows the Michaelmas crop, and is paid by a valuation for one year's improvement, which includes the labour, the seed, and the manure he has laid out upon the land, from the preceding Michaelmas to the Michaelmas when he quits the farm. He is paid for the young seeds on the ground, and for every ploughing, harrowing, or rolling, which a field has undergone during the summer for a Michaelmas or turnip season; and likewise for the manure laid out and the carting of it, and for all the dung or manure in the yards, or about the premises.

The outgoer has the use of the barns for his last crop,

but cannot take it away from the premises; the incomer, however, claims the straw and chaff, on paying for the threshing and conveying the corn to market. With regard to the stock and implements, the taking them or not by the incomer is entirely optional, and altogether depends upon any agreement made between the two parties; the outgoer pays the rent and taxes up to the time of his quitting. The incomer has the hay, the wheat, or other Michaelmas crops, the turnips and young seeds, all valued to him on entering a farm, with the whole of the seed, labour, and manure bestowed upon them; this valuation amounts to a considerable sum of money, and he has afterwards to take all the risk of the markets for another man's crop and management.

MODE OF FARMING, IMPLEMENTS, &c.

In many parts of Essex the soil is of that nature that turnips cannot be grown upon it to any advantage; but on all land adapted for it, the turnip husbandry is very generally practised.

The usual rotation of farming is—first, turnips; second, barley or oats; third, seeds; fourth, wheat; and fifth, tares for feed, after which they make a clean fallow for wheat or barley again, and if a crop of peas or beans is taken instead of sowing tares for feed, a slight dressing of dung is generally laid upon the clover lay for wheat: in ground where turnips cannot be grown, wheat is usually fallowed and the rotation is—first, fallow; second, wheat; third, seeds; fourth, oats, or perhaps wheat again. There are some hundreds of acres in Essex that are fallowed alternately year after year:—this method answers the purpose of a tenant much better than cropping that kind of land harder or more frequently, he not

only dressing more sparingly, but by the frequent ploughings he lightens the land, and obtains more abundant crops, whilst he does away with all manual labour performed by the hoe, and is often enabled to take a crop of barley, which land of that description would never produce if not cultivated in the most indulgent manner.

The drill is generally used for wheat where the soil will admit of it, but on heavy land a considerable portion of it is ploughed in, either upon a fallow or bean ground, not however so frequently upon bean stubbles as on fallows: the ground is ploughed in ridges of about four furrows, which lays the wheat dry during the whole of the winter; and being harrowed or rolled in the spring, the earth is pulverized about the roots, and the wheat enjoys itself, as it were, much better, than when sown on larger ridges, and remaining during the winter in a cold and wet state.

The manure most generally used is dung, or dung and mould mixed together; where lime can be had at a moderate expense it is applied to the heavy land: on the lighter soils chalk and marl are used; the latter is found to answer very well if applied with moderation, and not too often; the soil requires a considerable time to mix and work well with the marl, and it is found to be far more beneficial to apply from twenty to twenty-five loads of it per acre, every five or six years, than to use it in larger quantities or more frequently.

The ploughs chiefly used are generally furnished with the cast-iron tips, which are universally approved of; that used in heavy land is rather fuller in the breast, in order that it may the better turn the furrow; the ploughs have only one handle, but they carry a plough staff, which fastens to the plough, and is used as a handle, and

likewise as a spud for cleaning the plough. The mole plough is very frequently used for draining the land; where the drains are dug out the principal ones are filled in with bushes and straw; the latter material alone is generally used for the branch drains, *all* which improvement is most commonly made at the expense of the tenant.

The landlords generally hold the underwoods in their own hands: when any is cut, one leader from the root is left standing for another cutting; it is then converted to the purposes of building, or any other use for which it may be required, but this only applies to wood that will grow to some size: ash is saved in that way chiefly for the coopers; the root never pays as underwood afterwards, it having been so materially weakened, through its whole strength being thrown into the one leader.

The outbuildings are generally thatched and weather-boarded; being once put into good order by the landlord, the repairs are subsequently made at the charge of him and the tenant jointly, the latter either providing both materials and workmanship, and charging the former with half the expense, or the landlord finding materials and the tenant workmanship: if, however, farms are let by the year, which is the case with some, all repairs are done by the landlord.

GLAMORGANSHIRE.

IN the northern parts of this county the air is very cold upon the mountains, but towards the south, where the ground is more level, it is mild, and the sea-breezes are very agreeable.

The soil in the most mountainous parts is gravelly and barren, but there are some very fertile spots in the vallies. The hills do not produce much corn, but they afford good pasture for sheep and cattle, and likewise great quantities of cheese and butter are made.

Mines of coal, lead, and iron, abound in the mountains; those of the latter are, perhaps, equal to some of the most extensive in Great Britain. There is no manufacture in Glamorganshire worthy of remark: the inhabitants in the interior are chiefly employed in husbandry; those on the borders, in maritime trade, and working in the mines; the poor are much better off in this county than in any other in Wales. The most fertile part of this district is the Vale of Glamorgan, the soil of which chiefly consists of red clay, with a substratum of limestone, and which produces most excellent wheat; in the north, gravel chiefly predominates, excepting where coal is found—there the soil, however, may be said to be, generally speaking, clay.

PRACTICE OF TENANCY.

Farms are usually let upon leases, but for terms not so long as formerly; in some parts this practice is altogether

disused, but the most general custom is, to grant a lease for seven or fourteen years.

In the southern part of the county farms are entered upon at Lady-day, and the house at May-day; but to the north and east, the time for entering upon the land is chiefly at Candlemas, and the house at May-day. The rents are paid half-yearly; the poor-rates are collected as often as required; the highway-tax is half compounded for and half worked out: the tithes are generally paid by agreement.

CUSTOMS BETWEEN LANDLORD AND TENANT, AND THE
INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANT.

A tenant can, in general, remove hay and straw from the premises; and he may also either convey away or be paid for the dung when he quits a farm: in some few places, however, he is obliged to feed the hay and straw upon the land, and leave the dung for the benefit of his successor. It is not usual to restrain a tenant either as to the mode of cultivation, or as to the quantity of wheat sown upon the farm.

It is customary for the outgoing tenant to sow the wheat crop, and to be paid for it according to a valuation made by two or three neighbouring farmers, and likewise for the clover or grass seeds, for which he is allowed seed and labour: the incomer has the option of ploughing for his own fallows and his spring crop, but he cannot enter for that purpose before Lady-day (where that is the time for taking possession), without obtaining leave from the outgoer.

MODE OF FARMING, IMPLEMENTS, &c.

The wheat is, in general, very tolerably put into

the ground, and that is all that can be said in favour of the mode of cultivation practised in Glamorganshire.

The rotation of cropping in the clay ground is usually—first, fallow; second, wheat; third, oats; fourth, oats; and fifth, seeds; in the lighter soils, potatoes are much grown, and the rotation is—first, fallow, or potatoes; second, wheat; third, barley; fourth, seeds; fifth, oats: the seed more frequently sown than any other is ray grass; it is very commonly saved for seed.

The principal part of the wheat is ploughed in: neither the drill nor the threshing machine are at all used: the same sort of plough which is employed in Gloucestershire is coming into general use here.

The manure chiefly depended upon is lime, which is often applied both on arable and pasture land. Though nothing of much importance is to be learnt from the mode of cultivation in this county, yet there is one practice worthy of remark, respecting which, from its being generally adopted, an opportunity is afforded of judging how and at what season it can be best carried into effect.

When lime is used either for turnips, wheat, or any other grain, it is always laid upon the ground in the spring, generally about the month of May, and worked with the fallow; if there is no opportunity of laying on the lime during the summer, it is never done in the autumn, lime being considered to require some time to work upon the ground, in order to be of any benefit to the crop, and that it is likewise necessary to be applied when the land is in a dry state, otherwise the intended effect is lost.

The outbuildings are generally constructed of stone (which is very abundant) and stone slate; they are kept in repair by the landlord.

GLOUCESTERSHIRE.

THE air of this county is generally very healthy, but it varies like the soil according to situation, being on the hills sharp and very piercing, and in the vallies much more serene and temperate. The Vale of Gloucester is remarkably fertile, both the pasture and arable land: its soil chiefly consists of a rich sandy loam, but some parts of a red clay, the latter of which generally predominates in the western part of the county; towards the east and south there is a considerable proportion of cold sour land; the Cotswould Hills are extremely backward in vegetation, the soil being poor, light, and very gravelly.

Great numbers of sheep are kept in various parts of Gloucestershire: many of those belonging to, or bred in the county, are the Cotswould sheep, which are much larger than the Leicestershire breed, and have always been esteemed for the fineness of their wool; but a cross between the two is now more generally kept than any other, particularly upon the hills.

This county, although a large proportion of the land is of an inferior quality, produces, in great plenty, all the necessaries of life. Vast quantities of cheese (a well-known commodity) are also made here; but there is more manufactured in other quarters, in imitation of the Gloucester cheese, than of any other description of cheese whatever.

Considerable quantities of woollen cloth are manufactured in different towns in this district: there are likewise several mines both of iron and coal, which produce large sums of money to their proprietors: thus, taking

the county generally, its productions are very considerable.

PRACTICE OF TENANCY.

Leases are generally granted for seven or fourteen years; there are scarcely any for a longer term.

The most usual time for entering upon a farm is at Lady-day; in some places Michaelmas, but less frequently than the former period: with reference to either of the times of entry, the outgoing tenant retains possession of the barns and yards, and of part of the house, till the Lady-day ensuing, for the convenience of threshing his last crop and feeding the straw.

The rents are paid half-yearly: the poor-rates are generally collected once a quarter: the highway-tax is chiefly worked out: the tithes, which are very heavy, especially on the Cotswould Hills, are principally compounded for.

CUSTOMS BETWEEN LANDLORD AND TENANT, AND THE INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANT.

A tenant is restrained from conveying away either hay or straw from the premises, and stipulates to leave the same advantages for his successor when he quits a farm, that he received when he entered into possession. There is no general restriction as to the mode of cropping, but with regard to quantity, it is usual to allow three crops to a fallow.

When a tenant quits at Lady-day, he sows what spring corn he can previous to that period, and takes an off-going crop both of the wheat and spring corn which he sows, but he pays rent for the standing crop until the ensuing Michaelmas. The incomer is thus frequently prevented from having any corn during the first year,

with the exception of barley, which is scarcely ever sown so early as Lady-day: the outgoer, however, is bound to use all the straw of his produce upon the premises for the benefit of the incomer.

A tenant entering at Michaelmas has the option of sowing the wheat, but he cannot go on the land before that time for the purpose of ploughing, without permission from the outgoer; in some parts of the Cotswould Hills, however, the incomer has the privilege of entering for that purpose on the 1st of September, but this is not, even there, a general practice: from the system, indeed, that is chiefly followed in this county, the land is in a proper state to commence ploughing at Michaelmas for the reception of the seed, without any previous operation, and even considering this as an advantage to an incomer, his labour, which at that time of year ought to be spent upon the sowing of the corn, being only employed in preparing the land for it, not only does away with the advantage that the state of the land may be to him, but frequently occasions great loss in his crop from the backwardness of the season.

Under either custom, the outgoer has no other demand upon the incomer, than for the valuation of seed and labour; with reference to clover, and other artificial grasses, the value of which is reduced according to the age and periods of cutting, it is optional with the latter to plough for his own crops and fallows: by custom he has a claim to all the dung left upon the farm.

MODE OF FARMING, IMPLEMENTS, &c.

Very little wheat is fallowed for in this county, the principal part of it being sown in clover or bean stubbles.

In the Vale, where barley is grown, very few oats are

sown, excepting on strong, sour ground, on which barley grows too coarse; oats are then sown in preference, but very seldom on the same land. The rotation, in the Vale, is—first, turnips; second, barley; third, seeds, for two years, the first year cut for hay, and fed the second; and fourth, wheat; in strong clay ground clover is frequently sown with the beans.

: A considerable quantity of sainfoin is grown upon the hills; when the plant is worn out, the land is generally breast ploughed, and the surface burnt as manure for turnips; this plan is also adopted on clover lays. Lime is used in the western parts of the county, but towards the east the land is usually considered too cold for lime to be of any service. From the difficulty that presents itself in drawing manure upon the hills, the practice of paring and burning has been adopted; but if the farmers were to introduce the Wiltshire system, particularly on so light a soil, they would not only improve the land, by adding more substance to it, than by paring and burning the surface, but it would be the means of entirely changing the nature of the land and assisting the crops.

In the vale, wheat sowing does not commence till after Michaelmas; but, upon the hills, old wheat is most commonly sown and put into the ground a month or six weeks before that time, as, from the lightness of the soil, and the exposed nature of the situation, the wind would remove the grain from the ground, were it not sown very forward, so as to obtain a firm rooting; if, however, the land-press were used upon this soil, it would tend greatly to prevent the wind from having an effect upon the wheat, and the crop would be equally benefited.

Oxen are very generally employed upon the hills for ploughing the land; single-wheel ploughs are more commonly used than any others, but in some parts of

the hills the double furrow ploughs are occasionally resorted to.

Beans are, in some places, drilled, but they are most usually planted by the dibble; the greatest part of the corn is sown by hand; threshing machines are very little used. The out-buildings in the western parts are principally thatched, but generally throughout the rest of the county, they are built of stone and stone slate, and are kept in repair at the expense of the landlord.

HADDINGTON, OR EAST LoTHIAN.

THE air in this part of Scotland is as healthy as any in Great Britain. The soil is so rich that it is equalled by few spots in the United Kingdom: every operation of agriculture is carried on with great success, and the ground is let at a higher rent than in some of the richest counties in England.

With reference to the soil of the mountainous part of the shire, it is unnecessary to make any remark; but the cultivated districts afford as many points worthy of observation as any part of the empire. The aspect of the country in East Lothian is quite foreign to the character which is generally ascribed to Scotland; instead of the country becoming more mountainous and barren the farther it is advanced into, which is frequently supposed to be the case, a district is entered upon which has all the appearance of a garden.

The site of East Lothian is an inclined plane descending from the hills to the sea; on the coast the soil is a rich light loam; it gradually varies to clay towards the upper districts, and its general character is that of a clay bottom.

PRACTICE OF TENANCY.

The value of the land, of course, varies according to the nature of the soil, but the whole of it pays a very high rent.

The farms are all let on leases for nineteen or twenty-one years ; they are entered upon at Whitsuntide.

The rents are paid half yearly : it is customary throughout Scotland for the landlord to pay the whole of the taxes ; the tenant covenants to cultivate and leave his farm according to the *custom* of the country, *which*, having received the general attention of the landholders throughout the county, both as regarding the soil itself and the interest of the incoming tenant, is an agreement sufficiently binding, and at the same time beneficial, for a tenant to enter into

CUSTOMS BETWEEN LANDLORD AND TENANT, AND THE INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANT.

A tenant in this county is compelled by the landlord to keep during the year, and to leave, at the expiration of his lease, a proportion of the land in fallow, a proportion in seeds, and the same in corn ; he is prohibited from taking two white crops in succession : these restrictions are applied to farms in all parts of the county, although the soil on the coast is superior to that in the upper districts, and will bear a much longer rotation of cropping.

The outgoing tenant takes the whole of the corn crop, but is bound to thresh it on the premises, and leave the straw for the incomer, who assists in threshing and carrying the corn to market : the former is restrained from removing, at any time, either hay or straw from the farm.

The incomer has the benefit of the grass seeds and fallow without any charge at entry ; but he is bound,

when he quits, to leave the same quantity both of seeds and fallow (the latter being generally intended for turnips) that he found when he entered upon the farm.

MODE OF FARMING, IMPLEMENTS, &c.

A great quantity of wheat is sown in East Lothian, and the crops are generally very abundant: the chief object, indeed, in Haddingtonshire farming, is to raise as much of that kind of grain as possible.

Very little barley is cultivated, wheat being generally sown instead of it after turnips; on the sea-coast wheat continues to be sown till the month of February. Turnip husbandry, in this county, far surpasses that which is to be found in any part of England, not only as to the management, but with reference also to the quality of the turnip. The latter effect must chiefly arise from the richness of the soil: the turnips are remarkably large, and are found to be much sounder than in any other part of the United Kingdom, they being never at a loss for proper nourishment, and being continually kept in a growing state.

The rotation on the coast is, first, turnips; second, wheat; third, clover; fourth, wheat; fifth, beans; sixth, oats; on the clay land the wheat is generally fallowed for, and the rotation is—first, fallow; second, wheat; third, seeds; fourth, oats; and sometimes fifth, beans; but if a crop of beans is taken, a little dung is always laid upon the land for them.

Sea-weed is frequently used as a manure in various parts of the coast; on the clay land, a considerable quantity of lime is applied, which is obtained at a moderate expense, coals and limestone being in great abundance; the manure, however, most generally used is that from the farm-yard. A great number of beasts and

sheep are prepared in this county for the butcher; all the former, with the exception of those that are fed at the distilleries, are fattened upon no other food than turnips and straw.

It is worthy of remark that many valuable inventions owe their origin to this county, and various improvements have been here first made in agricultural implements, which may serve to account for the mode of their application in East Lothian being superior to that practised in any other quarter.

The drill is used for turnips and for every kind of grain, except wheat, which is always sown by hand; on the coast, beans and peas are very frequently mixed and drilled together, in order that the beans may become a support to the peas, which otherwise, from the richness of the soil, produce so much straw, as to occasion great part of the crop to rot, unless it is by some means partially supported.

Threshing machines are generally employed: the ploughs are of cast iron; they are never worked with more than two horses.

The outbuildings are extensive and extremely convenient; they are principally constructed with stone and slate, and are kept in repair at the expense of the landlord.

WEST LOTHIAN.

There is some excellent land in West Lothian, but it is not equal to that in the East, and the backwardness of the climate in the former, makes a difference of from a fortnight to three weeks at the time of harvest, compared with the latter.

The soil varies, but clay is the most prevalent, as it is in East Lothian: the customs, management, and tenancy are, however, entirely upon a different principle.

PRACTICE OF TENANCY.

Leases are generally granted for nineteen years: the rents are paid half yearly: the most usual time for entering upon a farm is at Michaelmas: the landlord pays all tithes and parochial taxes.

The general custom in this district is, not to set a standing-money rent upon farms, but to let them by the boll, as they might be by the quarter in England; in many places, half the rent is paid in cash, and half in bolls of corn.

The amount of the rent is thus, of course, fluctuating, it depending upon the averages of the markets: when a person takes a farm, he calculates what corn the land will produce, and according to the then state of the markets, he offers a corn rent of a certain number of bolls, perhaps of one or more sorts of grain, equal to the annual money value of the land; and as the markets either rise or fall, so likewise will the rent in a similar proportion. This system was first practised in order that the minister of the kirk might be remunerated by a certain number of bolls of corn, instead of money, which remuneration is always provided at the expense of the landholders; but the system may now be considered to be more nominal than practical, farms being more commonly let for the value of a certain number of bolls per acre, than for the corn itself.

The value of the boll is known by the fiars struck at different periods of the year; and on the first of March the tenants appear before a committee to swear to the prices they have received for the corn sold by them during the year preceding, as, according to the average price of the

corn for that year, the tenant has to pay the value of the number of bolls agreed upon per acre. In some places the landlord states a *minimum* under which the fiars are not to be taken, and the tenant a *maximum* above which they are not to be reckoned, which seems to be the fairest mode for both parties.

The Scots, in general, who engage in any branch of business, scarcely ever stir a step without previously forming a system, and seeing their way pretty clearly. It is commonly observed, that the markets take a turn every six years: when a person takes a farm at a standing rent, he calculates the average price of corn during the last nineteen years, which, supposing a turn to take place every six, makes the chances two to one either for or against him; but in taking the annual average of the last nineteen years, he considers it a fair calculation to guide him in offering a rent, according to the price of grain; for although farms stand at a stated rent, they are generally taken according to this mode of calculation, and it operates in a different way to that of taking by the boll.

*Average Price of Grain in Great Britain, in each Year,
from 1791 to 1827.*

Years.	Wheat.		Barley.		Oats.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
1791	47	2	26	1	17	7
1792	42	11	26	9	17	10
1793	48	11	31	9	21	3
1794	51	8	32	10	22	0
1795	74	2	37	8	24	9
1796	77	1	35	7	21	9
1797	53	1	27	9	16	9

Years.	Wheat.		Barley.		Oats.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
1798	50	3	29	1	19	10
1799	67	6	36	0	27	7
1800	113	7	60	0	39	10
1801	118	3	67	9	36	6
1802	67	5	33	1	20	7
1803	56	6	24	10	21	3
1804	60	1	30	4	23	9
1805	87	10	44	8	28	0
1806	79	0	38	6	25	8
1807	73	3	38	4	28	1
1808	79	0	42	1	33	8
1809	95	7	47	3	32	8
1810	106	2	47	11	29	4
1811	94	6	41	10	27	11
1812	125	5	66	6	44	0
1813	108	9	58	4	39	5
1814	73	11	37	4	26	6
1815	64	0	30	3	23	10
1816	75	10	33	5	23	6
1817	94	9	48	3	32	1
1818	84	1	53	6	32	11
1819	73	0	46	8	29	4
1820	65	7	33	10	24	4
1821	57	9	25	6	20	9
1822	57	8½	25	6½	20	9
1823	68	3	39	4	27	3
1824	45	10	25	2	20	10
1825	62	5½	36	1½	24	1½
1826	65	4½	38	2½	25	1½
1827	55	11½	33	5½	36	8½

The following is a calculation made by farmers entering upon farms in Scotland:—

For 1818.

	£.	s.	d.	
Wheat ..	82	18	10	} Averages of nineteen years.
Barley ..	42	2	2	
Oats	28	9	6	
3)153	10	6		

19)51 3 6 { Joint average of wheat, barley, and oats for nineteen years, including 1818, in equal proportions.

£ 2 13 10½ { Joint average ditto for one year.

£.	s.	d.	Qrs.	£.	Qrs.	R.	P.	G.	Qrs.
If 2	13	10½	1	100 =	37	1	0	0	3

Average for 1818.

	£.	s.	d.
Wheat ..	4	4	1
Barley ..	2	13	6
Oats	1	12	11

3)8 10 6

£ 2 16 10 { Joint average of wheat, barley, and oats, for 1818, in equal proportions.

Qrs.	Qrs.	£.	s.	d.	Qrs.	R.	P.	G.	Qrs.	£.	s.	d.
If 1 =	256	2	16	10	37	1	0	0	3 =	105	10	7

Produced at the average price of 1818, from the quantity of grain produced for 100l. at the average price of the preceding nineteen years, including 1818.

For 1819.

	£.	s.	d.	
Wheat ..	80	18	3	} Averages of nineteen years.
Barley ..	41	8	10	
Oats	27	19	0	
3)150	6	1		

19)50 2 0½ { Joint average of wheat, barley, and oats, for nineteen years, including 1819, in equal proportions.

£ 2 12 8½ { Joint average ditto for one year.

£.	s.	d.	Qrs.	£.	Qrs.	R.	G.	Pts.
If 2	12	8½	1	100 =	37	7	3	3

Averages for 1819.

	£.	s.	d.
Wheat . .	3	13	0
Barley . .	2	6	8
Oats	1	9	4

3)7 9 0

£ 2 9 8 { Joint average of wheat, barley, and oats, for 1819, in equal proportions.

Qr.	Pn.	£.	s.	d.	Qr.	B.	G.	Pn.	£.	s.	d.
If 1 =	512	2	9	8	37	7	3	3	94	3	8½

Produced at the average price of 1819 from the quantity of grain produced for 100*l.* at the average price of the preceding nineteen years, including 1819.

Thus the quantity of corn produced for 100*l.* at the average price of nineteen years, including 1818, brings in 105*l.* 10*s.* 7½*d.* at the average price of 1818, proving favorable for the landlord, and in no way distressing the tenant, the landlord meeting with the advance of rent merely from the advanced price of grain; but the quantity of corn produced for 100*l.* at the average price of nineteen years, including 1819, brings in only 94*l.* 3*s.* 8½*d.* at the average price of 1819, diminishing the income of the landlord on account of the low price of corn, which up to the present time has continued to decrease from the same effect, the tenant at the same time paying a rent of so many quarters of corn, adequate to the value of the land when the markets afford a remunerating price, but under the value according to the market price from the year 1819 up to the present time.

When rents are paid by a quantity of corn, or rather by the value of so many quarters, or bolls, the fluctuation in the price of grain places the landlord and tenant in the same situation. A tenant either in a high or low time pays the same quantity of corn as rent; therefore much

depends on the cultivation of the soil, though the price of grain is equally as beneficial to the one as to the other. In a high or remunerating time, the quantity of corn produces the rent or more than the rent, which enables the landlord to benefit the community, by circulating his money, whilst the tenant, receiving for the remainder of his crop a remunerating price, meets with the same advantage and is enabled to make improvements; and in a low time, the quantity of corn not producing the rent, the landlord's income is curtailed, he reduces his establishment, which of course lessens his expenditure, and every branch of trade is affected by it, and the tenant is deprived of his means on the same account, but still stands in the same situation as his landlord, which keeps up a feeling that ought never to be lost sight of, that is, a mutual interest. Provided a tenant is allowed to possess a farm for nineteen or twenty-one years, this calculation may be considered a safe guide, and equally as favorable for the landlord as the tenant. It may be applied as well when a farm is taken at a stated money rent, as when taken at a corn rent, with only this difference, that a corn rent cannot exceed the quantity of grain agreed upon, and is annually proved by the averages whether it is equal to or less than the value of the land; and a money rent may require a considerable greater quantity of corn to produce it for one year to what it may for another, and a proof of the value of the land cannot be shown before the expiration of the term; but from the calculation and proof of the corn rent, a money rent, or the value of the land for a term of years, can be fairly estimated, when the quantity which it is enabled to produce is agreed upon by both parties. A man taking a farm at a stated money rent, would of course make a calculation what the land would

produce, and what he could spare for rent ; from the calculation of 1818, for 100*l.* value he would receive 105*l.* 10*s.* 7½*d.* ; but from that of 1819, for 100*l.* value, he would only obtain 94*l.* 3*s.* 8¾*d.* ; therefore, in this case, as well as that of a corn rent, he would make his offer between the averages of the two years, and acting upon this calculation, provided he holds for a sufficient term of years, he may make an offer between the averages of any two years, and will find his lease terminate favorably both for himself and landlord.

A similar calculation, made for each year up to the present time from 1819, will at once prove what a farmer, taking a farm previous to 1819, at a stated money rent under the general practice adopted in England, has been annually losing, many of whom have become entirely destitute, where the landlords would not consider their situation in time ; and where they have acted otherwise by making a deduction in their rents, they have perhaps decreased their income to a greater degree than if they had let their land in the first place at a corn rent sufficient to return them the value of the land, when the markets afford a remunerating price.

The price of grain was never known in any other state than that of fluctuation ; and were the landlords generally willing to receive a fluctuating rent in the same degree, it would undoubtedly be of the greatest benefit to the population, as well as to the country itself, by encouraging and supporting improvement, at the same time receiving as much rent for their own purposes (calculating on a term of years) as if they let their land for a stated money rent, though you may say compelled to make deductions at certain periods.

CUSTOMS BETWEEN LANDLORD AND TENANT, AND THE
INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANT.

Certain restrictions are imposed respecting the rotation of crops, a tenant being bound to have a proportion of the land in corn, green crops and fallow every year, and subjecting himself to a heavy penalty if he deviates from that course,—a penalty which is not very often remitted when an opportunity is suffered to occur of inflicting it.

During the term of the lease, a tenant is not allowed to convey away either hay or straw from the farm; but at its expiration, or when he quits, he is at liberty to sell every article he has either in or upon the ground, such as the standing crop, hay, straw, and likewise the dung.

There is no restriction with regard to taking two white crops in succession, provided they are not both of the same kind of grain, as wheat after wheat; if the species of corn is changed in the second crop, there is no compulsion as to the having a green crop between the two.

An outgoing tenant, at the expiration of his lease, advertises a *roup* (a sale) a fortnight or three weeks before harvest time, at which he has all his corn, turnips, or potatoes, (they having been first divided into small lots) sold by public auction, and they are all carried off from the farm, excepting what may have been voluntarily purchased by the incoming tenant: all the hay, straw, and manure, likewise, if refused by the incomer or landlord on being offered to them, is sold by auction, and carried off the ground in the same manner; but the outgoer himself is not allowed to take it from the farm, which he leaves, for the benefit of another, or make use of it in any other mode.

Through the difference in the time and custom of

entry, between East and West Lothian, an incoming tenant in the latter does not obtain half the advantages which accrue to him in the former. In this county he receives only the young seeds which were sown in the spring, previous to his entering upon the farm, for which he has nothing to pay, but he is bound to leave the same quantity on the ground at the expiration of his lease.

Only a certain quantity of land is here left for fallow, and to which nothing is done by the outgoer; but the incomer has the privilege of entering upon the farm in proper time for the purpose of making his own fallows for the Michaelmas season; if it is inconvenient for him to do so, and he wishes his predecessor to make them for him, he pays the latter for all the work done, but under his own direction: if the incomer is desirous of having a greater proportion of land in fallow than the outgoer intended to leave, he is generally allowed that privilege, upon paying an equivalent to the outgoer for the crop which the latter would have taken from the land, which is thus left for fallow to accommodate the incomer.

MODE OF FARMING, IMPLEMENTS, &c.

Turnips are not very extensively cultivated in West Lothian; the greater part of them are pulled, and the ground sown with wheat; but after feeding off such as are devoted to that purpose, if the season in a backward climate has become too far advanced to sow wheat, barley is generally substituted.

Potatoes are more commonly grown than turnips, especially in the vicinity of Edinburgh, there being so great a demand for them: but throughout the county a great quantity of this description of vegetable is produced upon almost every farm.

The general rotation is, first, turnips, or potatoes; second, wheat; third, seeds; fourth, oats; after turnips fed off; second, barley; third, seeds; fourth, wheat; but if seeds are allowed to remain down for more than a year, two white crops are frequently sown in succession, as oats after wheat, or wheat after barley, to make up the requisite quantity of corn: the farms being generally taken by the boll, the tenant sows all he can, and the landlord is particularly attentive to observe that only the stated quantity is sown. But little benefit accrues to the land from the sheep, it being, generally speaking, too wet and tender to carry them. The turnips are got off the ground early in the winter, and are stacked for the use of the cattle, a great number of which are prepared for the butcher from this root, and the distillers' wash; they make the principal manure that is used: agriculture, however, is not so well or so extensively conducted in any of its branches in this county as in East Lothian.

The corn is sown by hand, and is generally threshed by the machines, the greater part of which are under cover, and are worked by water.

The outbuildings, which are generally excellent, are very substantially built with stone and slate; they are kept in repair by the tenant, the landlord finding the materials.

HEREFORDSHIRE.

THE climate here is healthy and very mild, particularly in the tract next Worcestershire, but it is not so forward with regard to production as in many counties. The soil is remarkable for its fertility; it produces every kind of grain: in the month of May, when the pastures, which are as rich as any in England, are well stocked with cattle, the orchards ornamented with blossoms, and the corn making daily progress, this district presents the richest appearance that can be imagined.

An immense number of the species of apple, known by the name of Redstreak, are grown in the orchards; but there are scarcely any good eating apples to be found in the county, those which are considered the best for eating not being deemed the most fit for cyder.

The wool here, on account of its fineness, is esteemed equal, if not superior, to any in the United Kingdom. The manufactures, besides that of cyder, are chiefly confined to the weaving of coarse woollen-cloth, and the making of hats and gloves: with the exception of these articles, the inhabitants have no great connexion with trade.

This county abounds with valuable and ornamental timber. It has several rivers running through it, the banks of which are very fertile, particularly those of the Wye, which feed great numbers of cattle for the butcher.

The breed of cattle for which Herefordshire has been long famed, are deservedly held in high estimation; they are good fatteners, sell well in the scale, and are excellent

for working, but with reference to the dairy they are good for nothing; they are the most quiet, tractable beasts that are bred.

The sheep now kept here are generally crossed with the Leicestershire breed; the wool has, in consequence, become coarser, but that of the Ryland sheep, which properly belong to the county, is the finest and closest of any.

PRACTICE OF TENANCY.

Farms in Herefordshire are chiefly let only by the year; the general time for entering is at Candlemas, at which period the incoming tenant takes possession of the land with the exception of one meadow; this, together with part of the house, yards, and outbuilding, is retained by the outgoer for the convenience of his cattle, &c., until May-day. The rents are paid half-yearly, excepting that of the first year, of which a tenant is generally allowed to pay one-half at the end of twelve months, and the other half when he entirely gives up possession of the land and premises; but during the intermediate time the rents are always paid half-yearly.

The poor-rates are collected seven or eight times in the year, or oftener if required; the highway-tax is paid half by composition and half by work performed on the roads; the great tithes are valued every year, and are either collected or compounded for, as can be agreed upon; the small tithes are generally paid.

CUSTOMS BETWEEN LANDLORD AND TENANT, AND THE
INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANT.

According to the usual custom, the tenant cannot remove either hay or straw from the premises, nor is he

paid for any dung that is either left in the yards, or laid out upon the land, or allowed any thing for whatever labour he may have bestowed either upon his wheat or turnip fallows. Tenants, however, upon the same estate are allowed to sell or exchange hay or straw with each other.

The tenant, during the last year, is restrained from sowing more than a certain quantity of wheat, which, as generally stated, is not to exceed one-third of the arable land, in order that the incoming tenant's laying of spring corn may not be diminished; but during the time previous to the last year, there is no general restriction either as to the quantity sown, or with regard to rotation.

If the incomer does not agree to take the wheat crop by valuation, the outgoer cuts and claims the whole of it himself; but he pays no rent after Candlemas: he, nevertheless, has barn and yard room found him for threshing his wheat, and for making use of the straw on the premises, until the May-day twelvemonth following.

The incomer, on entering a farm, is not bound to pay for anything, except the young seeds, for which he gives the value of seed and labour; it being at his option either to take or decline the wheat crop, or to perform the spring and winter fallow ploughing: for the latter he may make an allowance to his predecessor for doing it for him, if agreed upon by both parties: the incomer has the benefit of all the dung left upon the premises, without any charge; it frequently happens, however, that the outgoer, in consequence of not being paid for the dung, and having the privilege of harvesting his last wheat crop, lays out all the dung in the winter on his green wheat as an extra top-dressing, of which he himself receives the

advantage ; and every tenant quitting at Lady-day or Candlemas has the means as well as the right of doing so, provided he has not covenanted to leave the dung in the yards, or in the same state in which he found it when he entered upon the farm. When the dung is used as above stated by the outgoer, the incomer is put to great inconvenience for the want of manure.

MODE OF FARMING, IMPLEMENTS, &c.

The land is in general tolerably well managed, but in many places it lies in the same wet, neglected state as in Worcestershire, owing to a similar want of good husbandry.

Turnips are extensively cultivated in many parts of Herefordshire, particularly in the neighbourhood of Ross and of the county-town : the rotation is, first, turnips ; second, barley ; third, seeds ; fourth, wheat ; and fifth, tares or peas : in the heavy land the wheat is always ploughed in, the land is then fallowed, and the rotation is, first, fallow ; second, wheat ; third, beans or tares ; fourth, barley ; fifth, seeds.

There may be other districts where irrigation is more generally practised than here ; but a vast improvement has been made, by means of it, upon various pastures, which formerly grew nothing but rushes or sedgy grass. Many people have an idea, though a very mistaken one, that irrigation produces rushes ; if in any case it does, such an effect must arise entirely from neglect or bad management. The first principle in irrigation is to lay the land dry, and to have the same facility of taking the water from it as there is of flowing it, by taking care that the carriers are sufficiently close and planed out, so as to prevent any water from remaining on the land : if

this is not done, rushes will certainly make their appearance; but if irrigation is properly managed, no manure will ever improve land in the same degree, or produce finer herbage. When land is frequently under water, and the latter has no means of escaping but by soaking into the earth; scarcely anything is produced except coarse, unprofitable grass; but where the water is kept in motion and can be taken off at pleasure, there is moisture sufficient to cause the rushes or coarse grass to spring; but, being then deprived of it, and this frequently taking place, the roots become exhausted and quickly perish, precisely in the same way as plants that require to be continually watered and are neglected. The draining that is done is generally paid for by the landlord, the tenant finding and drawing the stone; the drains are chiefly dug out from four to five feet deep, the breadth being in proportion: upon pasture land, after the drain has been filled up with a sufficient quantity of stone, the turf is always laid upon it turned upside down, which in this state lasts for a number of years, and prevents any earth from crumbling into the stone work.

The outbuildings of recent structure are all built with bricks and stone slate; the ancient buildings are chiefly thatched; after being once put into good repair, the tenant covenants to keep them so, the landlord finding material, but to be converted to its intended use at the expense of the former.

HERTFORDSHIRE.

THE soil of this county varies extremely ; the greater proportion of it may be said to be clay, but towards the western side it is loamy, and particularly rich ; both the meadow and arable land greatly contributes to the supply of the London markets with hay and straw.

The principal productions of Hertfordshire are wheat, barley, and almost every other kind of grain ; its wheat has acquired so much reputation, that many thousand quarters are sold in the London markets under its name, although brought from other quarters.

No manufacture worthy of remark is carried on in this county ; most of the inhabitants are either husbandmen, maltsters, or dealers in corn, or employed in some way in those branches ; they differ but little either in manners or customs from those of Bedfordshire.

PRACTICE OF TENANCY.

Leases are most usually granted for seven or fourteen years ; the farms are entered upon at old Lady-day.

The rents are collected half-yearly : the poor-rates, which are generally moderate, quarterly : the highway-tax is most commonly worked out : the tithes, both great and small, are paid by composition.

CUSTOMS BETWEEN LANDLORD AND TENANT, AND THE INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANT.

The mode of cultivation adopted in some parts, is that of taking two crops to a fallow, and which system a

tenant is obliged to act upon, but this restriction is by no means general.

A tenant has the liberty of selling hay and wheat-straw, but is prohibited from conveying away from the premises either barley, oat, or any other straw, being bound to feed it on the farm for the benefit of the land.

An outgoing tenant takes an off-going crop, both of the spring and Michaelmas crops, and pays for the ground they stand upon till harvest time. He has the same liberty of selling hay and straw at the expiration of his lease that he had during the existence of the term; the incomer is thus prevented from having any wheat-straw, excepting what he buys, for the use of his cattle, thatching, or any other purposes: for the first year and a half the outgoer, however, is bound to feed all the other straw for fodder, for which purpose he retains the barns and yards till the ensuing Lady-day, and leaves the dung for the benefit of his successor.

The incoming tenant, under such a taking, has only to pay (seed and labour) for the young clover or grass seeds on the ground: not having the privilege of sowing the spring corn, he is prevented from having any grain to take to market during eighteen months, there being only the hay, grass seeds, and what he can make from a turnip crop, to pay the rent for that period, excepting for the ground on which the outgoing tenant's last crop grew, which is paid by the latter up to Michaelmas.

MODE OF FARMING, IMPLEMENTS, &c.

Turnips are cultivated in some parts of the county to a considerable extent, but the land being not all adapted for their growth, they are only partially seen. The wheat in Hertfordshire has always been considered as

the first and best part of its agricultural system, but it does not bear the same aspect as formerly.

The land is, in general, ploughed very shallow, and is, in many parts, extremely foul: it is now much more the practice to take three crops to a fallow, than two; the rotation, generally, is—first, fallow; second, wheat; third, seeds; fourth, wheat; fifth, oats; or, fourth, beans; fifth, wheat: the sowing of the corn, in many parts, reflects but very little credit on the seedsman.

The meadow land is, in general, attended to much better than the arable; the quantity of hay produced is large, and the quality good; and the county having, with reference to the last-mentioned article, a character, as it were, to support, there being, also, a constant communication with the London dealers, higher prices are obtained for the hay produced here than in the adjoining counties.

The corn is chiefly sown by hand; the drill is scarcely ever used, nor is the threshing machine, as it would greatly diminish the value of the straw, and the straw being mostly conveyed to the London markets, the employing them would not answer the purpose of the farmer. A number of sheep are prepared here for the butcher, but very few beasts, the grazing land being generally kept back for hay. The manure principally used is that from the farm-yard; in some parts a good deal of chalk or marl is applied, but very little lime.

The outbuildings, which are by no means upon an extensive scale, are chiefly constructed of brick, and thatched; they are usually kept in repair by the landlord.

HAMPSHIRE.

THE air of this county is considered in every part of it to be pure and healthy, it being neither very piercing nor attended with much fog, as neither upon the downs, nor even towards the sea-coast, are the vapours so pernicious as in many other parts of the island.

The northern districts, especially towards the border, of Berkshire, are hilly, and the land very poor, it chiefly consisting of downs, woods, and a soil extremely flinty; but towards the north-west, or in the neighbourhood of Andover, the land is much better, and is very well managed.

Great numbers of sheep are bred throughout the county, and particularly towards the north, on account of the downs affording an abundance of feed, and of the county being in many parts so hilly that the land could not be cultivated without them.

The western part of Hampshire is chiefly occupied by the New Forest, and other extensive woods, which are stocked with most valuable timber; the county, indeed, throughout, is particularly well supplied with underwood, the manufacturers of which, or rather the wood-cutters, deserve great credit for the skilful manner in which they turn their work out of hand, especially with regard to cutting it from the stem, as they take great pains to leave it close and clean, which is the main point in the operation, it being a great protection to the stem against any of those injuries from the weather that are certain to befall it when it is hacked and cut irregularly, besides there being a great impediment arising from that cause to the next shoot.

The south, east, and interior quarters are very fertile, and contain some beautiful rich vales, in many of which are to be witnessed the profitable result of an outlay of money upon irrigation, particularly in the neighbourhood of East and West Mean, which places divide the south and west country downs, East Mean being the termination of the former, and West Mean the commencement of the latter.

The south and west country sheep are nominally distinguished by the designations of these two places, but the west country sheep are rather larger and much coarser than the South Downs, and the farmers in general, who live on the eastward side of East Mean feel a little pride in having an article of this description superior to those in the west.

PRACTICE OF TENANCY.

The time which is generally adopted in this county for taking possession of a farm, is Michaelmas, with the privilege of entering at May-day, to prepare the land for turnips and Michaelmas seasons; from which last-mentioned period, part of the house and sufficient stable room are given up for that purpose to the incoming tenant: the outgoer, however, has the privilege of retaining a similar proportion of conveniences until the succeeding May-day, in order that he may commodiously thresh out his last crop.

Farms in this county are, or at least have been until lately, most usually let on leases; but a practice is gaining ground of holding them only at will: the rents are, in general, collected once a year, the poor-rates quarterly: the highway tax is half paid by composition and half worked out; the tithes are commuted.

CUSTOMS BETWEEN LANDLORD AND TENANT, AND THE
INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANT.

A tenant is, in general, restrained from removing either hay or straw from the premises; he is also prohibited from taking two wheat crops successively, but two white ones in succession are not objected to, and oats after wheat is a common practice in husbandry: there being, however, no general restriction as to the quantity of seeds to be annually sown, the land in many places is very much impoverished and run out, by sowing for the last three or four years but one peas or beans, instead of grass-seeds. An incoming tenant having the privilege allowed him of entering at May-day, has sufficient time to prepare his own seasons; and having likewise the privilege of sowing clover or other artificial seeds in the spring, during the time his predecessor is sowing his barley, he has nothing to pay for on entering, as the outgoer cuts and feeds the hay and straw upon the premises, and leaves the dung for the incomer, without, under the custom of the county, having for it any claim.

MODE OF FARMING, IMPLEMENTS, &c.

The condition of the land in Hampshire reflects great credit upon the farmers in general, for their conduct in its management; and as the evil arising from the cause already mentioned, and which frequently becomes apparent at the termination of a lease, has been in some places noticed and remedied, that will most probably be the case as opportunities offer.

A great quantity of chalk is used in this county as manure, which, with the assistance of the sheep, is found to answer every requisite purpose. With regard gene-

rally to the cultivation of the land, there is very little difference between Hants and Dorsetshire.

On the heavy soil, the rotation is—first, fallow; second, wheat; third, oats or barley; fourth, seeds for two or more years as agreed upon: on the turnip land, it is, first, wheat from a two year old lay mucked, fed and folded upon; second, turnips or tares; third, barley or oats; fourth, seeds: a great quantity of tares are sown in the county and fed off by sheep, and this land frequently comes in for a turnip season the following year, or else for a crop of wheat.

It is well known that Hants is remarkable for the breed of hogs, and the reason why the Hampshire bacon is different in flavour from any other (or so considered), is said to be the quantity of acorns on which the animals are fed.

Excellent honey is collected in great abundance in different parts of the county, but that which is found on the heath is reckoned the best: this article adds considerably to the produce of Hampshire, but the chief trade carried on by the inhabitants consists in the woollen manufacture and the making of malt.

The same kind of plough, with the same strength applied to it, is generally used in this county as in Dorsetshire. In the southern part a great improvement has been lately made by means of draining the land, for which useful and profitable purpose, the landlord finds tiles, and the tenant pays the expense of workmanship.

In consequence of the quantity of timber grown in Hampshire, the outbuildings are principally thatched and weather-boarded, and a tenant finding them in good repair when he enters, is bound to leave them in the same state, the landlord finding rough timber.

HUNTINGDONSHIRE.

THE climate of this county very much resembles that of Cambridgeshire; in the northern parts near the fens it is considered very unhealthy, but in other quarters the air is pure and salubrious.

The soil, in almost every part of the county, is rich and naturally fertile; the upper districts produce all kinds of grain, and afford excellent pasture for vast numbers of sheep: in the lower parts where the ground is marshy great numbers of cattle are fed; in many quarters some very fine cheese is made.

Fuel is extremely scarce, particularly in all those places which do not border upon the navigable rivers; the inhabitants are, in consequence, for the greater part, obliged to burn turf, and what wood they can get, but the latter is by no means abundant: this is, of course, to many of the poorer class a great hardship.

There is no manufacture worthy of remark carried on to any extent in this county; the trade consisting chiefly in agriculture and the making of cheese and butter, which is one of its branches: from the attention of the people being so generally devoted to this pursuit, it might be expected to be much better conducted than it is.

PRACTICE OF TENANCY.

The usual time for entering upon a farm is old Lady-day, at which period the new tenant takes possession of the house, seeds, pasture and fallow land, his predecessor taking the whole of the corn crop, and retaining the use of the barns and yards until the Midsummer succeed-

ing harvest-time, for threshing his corn and feeding or making use of the straw. The farms are chiefly let only by the year.

The rents are paid half yearly: the poor-rates most frequently quarterly: the highway tax is half compounded for and half worked out: in some places the land is exonerated from tithe by means of allotments of ground; where that is not the case, there is generally a composition.

CUSTOMS BETWEEN LANDLORD AND TENANT, AND THE
INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANT.

A tenant is prohibited from breaking up any pasture land, and from carrying away hay or straw from the premises, but he is not in general restricted as to any particular mode of cultivation. If he leaves at old Lady-day, he has time to sow barley and all other kinds of spring corn, which he harvests and takes, as well as the wheat crop, but he pays no rent after that period.

An outgoer is bound to thresh the corn, and leave or feed all the straw for the benefit of the incoming tenant; but he is paid for the young seeds the value of seed and labour, and for any ploughing he may have performed during the winter for fallow.

The incomer, entering upon the seeds, pasture and fallow land at old Lady-day, and the outgoer being allowed to sow the spring crop, the former is prevented from having any corn during the first year and a half; he has, however, the benefit of the dung without any charge.

MODE OF FARMING, IMPLEMENTS, &c.

A great proportion, and that the richest part of the county, is devoted to the grazing of cattle; the land in general, although wet, is naturally good, but frequently

observed in a very indifferently managed state. It is ploughed much in the same way as is practised in some parts of Cambridgeshire, but rather in a worse manner if there is any difference, as, instead of having a continuation of immense ridges, (which are neither calculated, in stiff land, nor required in light, for the growth of corn,) there is frequently seen one small one between two of a large size, appearing like a valley between two hills; and which, of course, receives great part of the water that runs from its two neighbours; the consequence is, that the land is nearly perished, and is rendered very unprofitable. It is most unaccountable, that merely from the want of a different mode of ploughing and of water furrows, the land should be allowed to remain in its present state.

The arable land is in general far from being clean; it is drove harder than soil of that nature will bear, and especially when it lies in the state above described.

Cross cropping is very much practised in this county, a system which will never answer, except on light, rich loamy land, where sheep and the hoe can be used to advantage. Turnip husbandry is entirely confined to a few elevated spots. Instead of taking two crops of corn to a fallow and keeping the land clean and in condition, the general rotation is—first, fallow; second, barley or wheat; third, seeds; fourth, beans; fifth, wheat; or fourth, wheat; fifth, oats: very frequently seeds are not sown, but beans take the place of them.

The drill is very generally used for wheat; also threshing machines on farms of a size equal to their employment: the same kind of plough is used in this county as in Cambridgeshire.

The outbuildings are chiefly constructed of brick and thatched; they are generally kept in repair by the landlord.

KENT.

THE air in this county is considered salubrious; nor are the inhabitants who live near the marshy grounds so much afflicted with agues, as those who reside in similar situations in Essex. The soil is in many places very rich, and produces excellent crops of wheat, peas and beans, besides vast quantities of vegetables and fruit, which are regularly sent to the London markets; the land, however, is of much better quality, and the cultivation far superior in East Kent to what it is in the lower or western division of the county.

Between Maidstone and Tunbridge, the gardens and orchards have a very beautiful appearance, and the training of the filbert trees, especially, is well worth the notice of any one. The article, however, for which Kent is chiefly celebrated is its hops, of which there are numerous plantations, particularly between Maidstone and Canterbury, in which direction they are grown in great abundance, and very large sums of money are annually realized in the county by the sale of this valuable commodity.

The soil in East Kent chiefly consists of a sandy loam, which is worked at comparatively little expense to the farmer: in the western division it is more of a clayey nature, and in many parts dreadfully poor.

Chalk is found in abundance, which is not only burnt and used as manure within the county, but is also sent, in great quantities, to London: the rubbish of the chalk is frequently carried across the Thames to Essex, where the farmers use it on the cold marshy lands for a similar purpose.

The underwood is, in general, good, and very valuable; it, indeed, sells for double and triple the price which it will command in many other districts, owing to the quantity required in the hop plantations. There are many woods of excellent birch, which is chiefly sold to the broom-makers in London; and large timber grows in many parts of the county, which is used in the dock-yards at Chatham, Woolwich, and Deptford.

The cattle in Kent are chiefly of the Sussex breed, which are, in general, much larger than those in the neighbouring counties. The sheep belong to the county, they being the Romney Marsh breed, and which are very handsome; but though in consequence of standing high upon their legs they appear large, their weight does not average more than from twenty to twenty-two pounds per quarter.

PRACTICE OF TENANCY.

Many individuals who employ their capital in agricultural pursuits in this county are entirely ruined, even the very first year of their commencing business, through the operations of the customs and practice of tenancy; an occurrence which also as frequently takes place in some of the adjoining counties, arising from a similar cause.

Leases are not so generally granted in this county as in some others, the land, in many parts, being held at will, but the greater proportion of it is rented for either seven or fourteen years.

The time for entering upon a farm is, throughout the county at Michaelmas, when the incoming tenant takes possession of the house, land, and, generally, of the yards and outbuildings, excepting the barns, which are retained

by the outgoer until May-day, for the purpose of threshing the last crop. The rents are commonly paid once a year ; the poor-rates are, in most places, collected quarterly ; the highway-tax is half paid by composition, and half worked out ; the tithes are, in general, compounded for.

CUSTOMS BETWEEN LANDLORD AND TENANT, AND THE
INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANT.

A tenant is, in general, prohibited from conveying away hay or straw from the premises, he being bound to feed or use his whole produce of fodder on the farm ; but in some places he is allowed to sell hay or straw, provided he brings back an adequate quantity of dung. With reference to the mode of, or rotation in, cropping the land, there is no general restriction, further than that two crops to a fallow are not to be exceeded, or that a certain proportion of fallow is to be made every year ; but even this is frequently not regarded, and the land, in consequence, is, at the end of a term, left in a deplorable state, for the entrance of a new tenant.

The outgoer pays the whole expense of threshing his last crop, and, generally, has the straw valued to the incomer ; if the agreement between landlord and tenant specifies that the hay is to be fed upon the premises, this article is likewise valued to the incomer at a feeding-out price ; but where there is no such restriction, the outgoer sells it to any one who will purchase it, at the market value.

The latter also claims from the incomer a remuneration for all the labour he has bestowed during the last year upon the Michaelmas or turnip fallows, which the outgoer, up to the time of his leaving the farm, has the privilege of sowing ; he likewise charges for the seed and

the labour of sowing, and has a similar demand upon the incomer for the clover, or other seeds, upon the ground, for all the manure laid out during the last year upon the land, for half that which was used the preceding year, and for the expense of carting and other labour attending it. In addition to these demands, all the hop poles are taken in the same way as the rest of the articles, by the incomer, at a valuation; and thus the whole amount imposes a very heavy tax upon him.

In consequence of having so large a sum to pay at the outset, if his first year turns out bad, he is inevitably irretrievably ruined; which is and has been the case with hundreds, who, having entered upon a farm with all the money they could raise, have nothing left to carry it on, in the event of declining markets, or a wet season, affording them an unfavorable price for the produce of their first harvest.

The practice is, indeed, altogether bad, without taking into the account the impositions to which an incomer is liable. It is, of course, impossible for any individual, after a field has been ploughed, harrowed, and rolled, two or three times, to ascertain how often it has really undergone those operations, or whether, previous to the last time, they were properly performed, unless he was upon the spot to see the work done; if he was not, nor any one in attendance for him, what has he, or his appraiser, to rely upon with regard to the efficient performance of the labour, but the mere assertions of the outgoer, or his servants? Respecting the manure he is still more likely to be deceived, as an appraiser can only judge from the quantity of manure which he is told was carried out for the crop either sown or about to be sown, what half the quantity might have been the preceding year; and this

undoubtedly leaves great room for imposition where there is any disposition that way ; and although the outgoer is allowed for his labour upon the fallows by valuation, yet the land is frequently as much run out as if he was paid nothing, from the want of proper restrictions ; and let him run the soil out as much as he pleases, and leave the land ever so much impoverished, provided only that he works it the last year or two, which operates great injustice towards the incomer, and gives the outgoer every advantage, he receives the same sum as if he left it in good heart.

Let the practice, in this respect, in Kent, Sussex, Surry, Essex, Suffolk, and some other counties, be compared with that in the north of England, and it will be found decidedly proved that with one half of the capital employed in the former, a farmer can do as much and as well in the latter, as with double the amount in the south : for even in the counties just mentioned, if the first year turns out well, a farmer entering under such a practice, with a moderate capital, can never half stock a farm, an evil which is too well known and too much felt in those districts ; and which, from the baneful practice alluded to, is easily accounted for.

These practices are, undoubtedly, the worst that can be met with in Great Britain, with reference to entering upon farms, and are alike injurious to the interests of landlord and tenant. Those in many other counties are also highly disadvantageous, though arising from a different cause, namely, the time of entry ; but the whole might be easily altered, and the change could not fail to be attended with the most beneficial consequences.

MODE OF FARMING, IMPLEMENTS, &c.

The farming in East Kent is conducted in a better

manner than in any other part of the county, which, in some degree, arises from the difference in the quality of the soil, but not altogether so, the land being, in general, better managed than in the other divisions of the county.

The cultivation of beans and peas is carried on upon a very excellent system, surpassing, in this respect, every other county in England. Great attention is paid to the growth of beans in some parts of Wiltshire, but they are not so generally cultivated in that county, nor so much on the same principle, as they are in Kent.

Turnips are grown, to a considerable extent, on all the light soils; the rotation in East Kent is—first, turnips; second, barley; third, seeds; fourth, wheat; fifth, peas: in the western division it generally is—first, fallow; second, wheat; third, oats; fourth, seeds or beans.

Various kinds of manure are applied to the soil, such as fish, woollen rags, lime, and dung: the former is considered very useful in producing a crop, but its efficacy lasts only for a very short time; the effect of the rags continues for several years—they are commonly used in the hop plantations.

The greater proportion of the peas and beans are put in the ground by the drill plough, which is found a very desirable implement, especially on heavy land; but a small drill, with two or three shares on the same principle as the drill plough, is at present coming very much into use: the corn on all the light land is, in general, drilled.

Peas and beans are usually drilled at a distance that will allow a break to be worked between them, which answers the same purpose as if the hoe was applied: in some parts oats and barley are drilled in the same way, but which is not generally considered to be requisite; with regard to peas and beans, the effect is pleasing to the

eye, favorable to the crop, and beneficial to the land. A large quantity of sainfoin is grown in this county, from which is made some excellent hay; but, generally speaking, the pasture and meadow lands are very much neglected, particularly in West Kent, there being little or no irrigation, and a great want of that improvement which would be produced by draining.

The plough commonly used is a high-wheeled turn-wrist plough, which throws the ground all one way, and is generally drawn by four horses, driven double; in some parts of the county oxen are frequently employed in the various occupations of husbandry, which are considered handsome and very superior animals.

It has been already stated that any improvement by means of under-draining is rarely to be seen; and, generally speaking, very little encouragement is given in this respect, the tenant having to bear the whole of the expense.

In consequence of the timber grown in Kent, the out-buildings chiefly consist of oak weatherboarding; they are thatched, and are usually kept in repair at the joint charge of the landlord and tenant, the former finding materials, which are converted at the expense of the latter.

LANCASHIRE.

THE air of this county is, in general, more serene than in any other part of the kingdom, where such a considerable extent of it is exposed to the sea: towards the fens, however, near Liverpool, and along the banks of the Mersey, the inhabitants are afflicted with many disorders, which is attributed to the saline effluvia; in other quarters, situated at a greater distance from the sea, and not exposed to damp and fogs, the people enjoy good health, and are generally very active and robust.

The soil varies according to situation; in the western parts it produces great crops of wheat and barley, and even the valleys between the mountains towards Yorkshire and Westmorland, are fertile in oats.

The pasture land is, in general, very good; great quantities of hemp are cultivated, which serve for the supply of the manufactures of ropes and sail-cloth, at Warrington.

Iron, lead, and copper, are found in great abundances; there are also some mines of black lead, and good quarries of free-stone; with the latter article great part of the buildings here are constructed.

Coals are likewise very plentiful; and in many of the pits, limestone and vitriol are found in large quantities.

It is well known that very extensive manufactures are carried on in this county; and these, together with the mines, form great sources, from which much wealth is derived to the inhabitants.

Lancashire, as a commercial and manufacturing

county, is superior to any other in the United Kingdom. It is not, perhaps, in every part adapted for the growth of corn, but with better management it might be made to produce a much larger supply than is now drawn from its soil.

Potatoes and carrots are very extensively cultivated, and part of the county is particularly well-calculated for their growth; but the potato system is too generally carried on, to expect an abundant supply of corn.

The pasture land is much devoted to the use of the dairies, which are greatly depended upon, chiefly with reference to the manufacture of cheese: there is, however, a considerable produce of hay, which supplies Liverpool and the neighbouring manufacturing towns.

The soil in the southern part of the county very much resembles that of Cheshire, it being a soil of red sand; on the western side it generally consists of red clay, but interspersed with tracts of poor hungry gravel, and a number of turf bogs.

PRACTICE OF TENANCY.

The farms here are generally small; they are most commonly let on leases for seven years: the rents are paid half-yearly: the time for entering upon the land is at Candlemas, but possession is not given of the house before May-day, an outgoing tenant retaining possession of that, together with the use of the barns and yards, and one field, for the convenience of feeding his cattle.

The poor-rates are dreadfully oppressive, especially in the townships adjoining the manufacturing districts; some of them have been subjected to a rate amounting to forty shillings per acre: this is partly occasioned by the county rate, which renders the poor-rates heavy throughout the

county ; they are collected fifteen or sixteen times (sometimes oftener) in the course of the year.

The highway-tax is very trifling ; the usual practice is to pay half and work out half. In some parts of Lancashire, small tithes were not generally taken till within a few years past, and many great contentions and heavy lawsuits have occurred, in consequence of their being only recently claimed ; they are now, in some places, very rigidly collected.

The great tithe, which is only upon corn, is valued every year, and either compounded for or taken in kind ; the latter practice is the most prevalent : the small tithes are upon numerous articles, such as hay, potatoes, turnips, pigs, sheep, green tares, cows, calves, and many others which are valued, and generally taken in the same way.

CUSTOMS BETWEEN LANDLORD AND TENANT, AND THE INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANT.

Two customs between landlord and tenant prevail in this county—one, that the tenant shall only have a certain proportion of his farm under the plough at any one time, but being allowed to manage the land he has in tillage in whatever way he pleases ; whilst, by the other, he is bound to take only two white crops before he lays the land down again in seeds, in regular rotation for one or more years, but he is allowed to plough all the proportion of arable land. A tenant is not restrained from selling hay or straw, nor is he in general bound to draw manure back when he does sell, but he is compelled to lay a certain quantity of manure upon his meadow land, regularly every year. An outgoing tenant gives up possession of all the land at Candlemas, with the exception of one field,

which he has the privilege of retaining, for the purpose of turning his cattle into, till May-day : from the wheat crop he receives two thirds of the produce if the wheat was fallowed for ; but if sown after potatoes, beans, or any other crop, only one half, excepting after a white crop, which does not very often happen when a tenant quits a farm, as he receives nothing from that rotation. The incoming tenant has the benefit of all the manure, and of the seeds upon the ground ; but he is bound to leave, at the expiration of his term, the same quantity of seeds that he found at its commencement. In consequence of paying rent and taxes from the time of his entering upon the farm, he receives his thirds or other portions of the wheat crop, but the outgoing tenant pays all the expense of its cutting.

MODE OF FARMING, IMPLEMENTS, &c.

Cultivation is but very indifferently carried on in this county, nor can it be otherwise whilst the present system is continued.

The custom of producing only two white crops before the land is seeded with clover, or other artificial grass, is evidently the best ; but the best is far from being good, as no system or regular rotation belongs to either of them. The rotation generally is—first, potatoes ; second, wheat ; third, oats ; fourth, barley fallowed ; fifth, seeds : or first, oats ; second, potatoes ; third, wheat ; fourth, barley ; fifth, seeds ; but where the land is held under the custom of having only a certain proportion of it in tillage, hundreds of acres lie entirely idle, being neither what can be properly called pasture, nor of any profit to a farmer, the most they produce being thistles and couch grass.

The latter system is acted upon under the idea of easing the land, but it clearly has not the desired effect, as one part is entirely, by bad management, run out of condition, while the other is eased; nor can such a mode produce more feed than the having the whole of the land in cultivation and in regular rotation, as there might be the same quantity to feed and the same proportion to mow, by means of breaking up the seeds regularly every one or two years, as required, and laying down the same quantity.

Clover or other artificial grasses will produce more feed from one to three years old, than from three to six; and, in point of fact, if the plant is not encouraged by manure, and fed by sheep after two or three years, it soon becomes little else than a bed of rubbish, which is precisely the case in this county: the only use it can then be turned to, is for keeping cows and horses during the summer; but in the winter it will neither carry sheep nor any kind of cattle, and lies entirely waste. If land is to be brought into pasture, it should be laid down as such, and every attention given to it; but if it is broken up when another part of the farm is exhausted by bad management, and only shares the same fate, it would undoubtedly be much better and more profitable to break the seeds up regularly every two or three years, than to let them remain for ten or twelve; and that wretched appearance would then be got rid of, which is occasioned by following a useless plan of laying down ground as profitable pasture, without rendering it any assistance.

One good plan is acted upon in this county, which would be desirable on all cold lands, where couch and water grasses generally flourish. A practice is followed of ploughing the wheat stubbles which are intended for

oats early in the winter, but only about half depth; the ridge is slit, half being thrown to the right, and the other to the left; but room is always taken sufficient to prevent the first furrow that is ploughed from being turned into the watercourse, and thus interrupting the drainage of the land: the first furrow, therefore, ploughed lies upon the space of a furrow of whole ground at the edge of the watercourse, which prevents the growth of any grass from either; and the land remaining in this state all the winter, becomes close by seed time, besides the probability that there is of its being more deeply penetrated by the frost. In the spring the land is ploughed at its usual full depth, and it comes up remarkably mellow; having been turned from the commencement of the winter, every thing likely to impede the plough has entirely disappeared, and the soil is clean. If this plan were adopted in some counties that are subject to water grass, either upon clover lays, bean stubbles, or any other land intended for a spring crop, it would be found to pay at a double rate to that of turning the horses out on the same ground, and keeping them in idleness during the winter, which many farmers are in the habit of doing.

Draining is in some parts of the county very well attended to, the landlord generally bearing a share of the expense, either by finding tiles or other materials for the purpose, or paying for half of the workmanship.

Scarcely any turnips are grown in Lancashire, and but very few sheep are kept. The manufacturing towns are chiefly supplied with meat from Ireland and Yorkshire.

The corn is sown by hand, and is all threshed by the flail: the plough most commonly used is the small Scots plough: the carting is done by large two-horse carts, but the Westmorland farmers clear a field much sooner

with small single-horse carts, than the people here do with the large ones.

The outbuildings are very good ; in the southern part of the county they are chiefly built with brick and covered with stone slate ; in the north they are generally constructed of stone and the Westmorland slate.

LEICESTERSHIRE.

AGRICULTURE is the principal business carried on in this county ; but the manufactures, chiefly that of stockings, have, of late years, greatly increased, and considerable advantage is derived from them.

The north-west and eastern districts, consisting principally of hills, which contain an abundance of coal and slate, and feed great numbers of sheep, are not so fertile as other parts ; but the county, taken in general, is as fruitful as most in the United Kingdom. In some districts, which are principally devoted to the grazing of sheep and cattle, the soil is mostly a rich red clay, which is particularly favorable for the growth of beans and wheat, as well as for pasture ; but the land in general consists of a rich loam, which produces most abundantly every kind of grain.

This county is remarkable for its breed of sheep, both in point of their weight, and of the quantity of wool that is taken from them, and they are dispersed more widely than any other throughout the kingdom : it is likewise celebrated for a most excellent breed of horses, well-adapted both for the saddle and for draught, but more particularly for the latter purpose.

PRACTICE OF TENANCY.

The tenants most commonly hold at will: the farms are generally entered upon at Lady-day, but some few at Michaelmas. The rents are received half-yearly: the poor-rates, which are moderate, are collected as often as they are wanted: the highway-tax is paid half by composition, and is half worked out; some parts of the county are subject to the payment of tithes, but most of the land is exonerated, by means of allotments in lieu of them.

CUSTOMS BETWEEN LANDLORD AND TENANT, AND THE INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANT.

The tenants, in general, are restrained from selling either hay or straw, and also from breaking up any pasture land. They are likewise expected, in the cultivation of their land, to adopt the system of two crops and a fallow: in some places the tenant is bound to lay a certain quantity of lime every year upon his wheat seasons, but this is not a general custom.

An outgoing tenant is paid for all clear fallows, but they must be free the whole of the summer, both from a green crop used for feed, and from one that stands to ripen, otherwise he receives nothing; for all clear fallows he is generally allowed three ploughings per fallow.

For his wheat crop, if sown in a clear fallow, he receives the value of seed and labour, besides the number of ploughings allowed; but if sown in a bastard fallow, he only receives payment for the seed and labour: for the seeds in the ground, he is in like manner paid for seed and labour, but he is allowed nothing for a turnip fallow,

either fed off or pulled, it being considered that he has had the benefit of that crop: upon farms, however, entered upon at Michaelmas, an outgoing tenant is either allowed one year's rent for his turnip crop, or he has the option of feeding them till Lady-day, but he cannot pull them to feed on other land.

An incoming tenant is only bound, by the customs of the county, to pay for the seeds, wheat, and clear fallows, by valuation, and likewise for any winter ploughing which his predecessor might have done, such as breaking up for a fallow, it being optional with the incomer either to plough for his spring crop himself, or to pay his predecessor for doing it for him; but he cannot enter to commence ploughing before Lady-day, without permission from the outgoer; and supposing the latter, from mere caprice, to refuse, the incomer is put to great inconvenience, as he may thereby be deprived of a spring crop: he cannot, in fact, by any possibility, get his seed put into the ground within any reasonable time, except by means of the assistance of his neighbours, who are subject to a similar custom.

Upon farms that are entirely devoted to grazing, it is customary in some places for the incoming tenant entering at Lady-day, to pay half the winter half-year's rent, as he receives, during the next summer, all the benefit of the land: the previous summer, however, might as well be set against the winter, as the succeeding one; and a tenant quitting a farm ought to be considered more able to pay half a year's rent, than one who has just entered into business, and who wants all his money for stocking the farm, without having yet derived from it any advantage.

MODE OF FARMING, IMPLEMENTS, &c.

The farms, which are in general small, are kept clean, and in good condition, but not in so high a state of cultivation as they are in some other parts of England. On the clay land, the rotation is—first, fallow ; second, wheat ; third, beans : on the loamy soil,—first, turnips ; second, barley or oats ; third, seeds ; fourth, wheat.

Dung and lime are the principal articles of manure that are used ; bone manure, rape dust, or any other artificial dressing, is very seldom tried.

The horses at plough are generally driven at length ; the double-furrow ploughs are very commonly employed, which, with a good ploughman who has been used to them, turn lay ground as well as any other, but they require extra strength.

Wherever the practice prevails of driving the horses in length, these ploughs are of great advantage, particularly in moving the fallows. Three horses are generally, when driven in length, used to a common plough, for stirring the land, almost in all districts ; and four are sufficient for a double plough when used for the same purpose, which is the principal part of the summer's work : thus, instead of one acre being ploughed with three horses, there are two ploughed with four, which, allowing that the double plough does the work of two others, makes a saving of two horses, one man, and a boy every day. That, however, is not the only advantage of the double plough, as, instead of working the land in wet weather, the horses may be employed in other labour, and be in good time afterwards for performing two days work in one : the advantage, indeed, must be at once seen, of employing this plough upon a farm, requiring as it does only

four horses to do the work ; as, instead of using the four with a single plough, and getting once over the fallows, the double plough goes over them twice ; and besides this, there is the opportunity of taking advantage of the weather. In clay land, the double ploughs have, no doubt, too heavy a draught to be used for breaking up, but for stirring, they answer a very good purpose ; and if only one is employed upon a farm, it makes a material difference with regard to the work.

These ploughs are used in other counties much more generally than in this ; the employment of them prevails mostly in Shropshire.

The land in Leicestershire is, in many parts, subjected to considerable drainage ; some of the drains are laid in with the draining tiles, and some with slate chippings : the landlord generally pays half the expense.

The outbuildings are chiefly constructed of brick and tiles, or brick and slate ; very few thatched buildings, especially of recent structure, are to be seen : being once put into good repair, the tenant is expected to keep them in the same state during the time he occupies the farm.

LINCOLNSHIRE.

From the description generally given of this county, it might be expected to find it low, wet, and fenny; but the wolds are to the full as extensive as the marshy and fenny lands, including both the ground which is inclosed, and that which is yet open.

The soil is, in general, extremely rich, but there are four or five distinct characters of it, all of which are very productive.

There are, the marsh, the middle marsh, the fen, the wold, and the moor.

The marsh land is that which borders upon the sea, and is only preserved from the frequent inundations of the tide by vast banks, which have been thrown up on the sea-coast, forming between each bank a wide and deep channel, that prevents the water from flowing upon the land; whilst tunnels are laid in each embankment, for the purpose of conveying the water from one channel to another, so that the channel nearest the coast, when the tide will allow, empties itself into the sea.

The fens in Lincolnshire, by means of the effectual drainage they have undergone, are rendered perfectly sound; the drains are kept clear and in good order, by means of regulations similar to those which are applied to the roads in most parts of England. Every proprietor or occupier of land in the fens pays a rate proportioned to the quantity of land which he holds, for clearing or repairing the drains; this rate is collected by a surveyor,

who is appointed by the commissioners to see that the drains are kept in good order.

Almost every inclosure is divided by a drain, which empties itself into a larger one leading to the sea: in some parts of the fens, windmills are erected (formerly much more common than they are now), for the purpose of raising the water from the lowest parts, where it could not drain away of itself, into a trough, which empties into a drain leading to the coast.

The middle marsh is the land lying between the marsh and the wold; it is of rather a strong nature, being a mixture of clay and marl *; but it cannot be converted into bricks, as the marl, from its chalky tendency, bursts before the bricks are sufficiently burnt. The wold is the upland ground, containing a substratum of chalk, which is observed much nearer to the surface in some places than it is in others: generally, however, there is a good depth of soil; and some thousands of acres between Horncastle and Barton, which have not been inclosed more than thirty years, now produce as much corn, and are become, by improvement, as profitable a tract of land as any in the wold.

The moor is that which lies between the hills in the wold; it varies more in strata than any other land in the county, but produces as much corn per acre suitable to the soil, as any other part.

Gravel, sand, sand-stone, iron-stone, and blue-stone, are all to be found in this county.

PRACTICE OF TENANCY.

The general custom in Lincolnshire is, to let the farms on leases for seven or fourteen years; the time for enter-

* A kind of chalk.

ing, throughout the county, is Lady-day, with the exception of a few places, where it is May-day. Each of these periods may prove very injurious to the incomer, unless the outgoer is compelled by the landlord to sow the spring corn in proper time himself, or to allow his successor to enter upon the farm sufficiently early to do it: May-day is the worst of the two, as if pasture land is allowed to be stocked up to that time, it becomes of little value to the incomer during the remainder of the summer, especially in a dry season.

The rents are paid half-yearly: the poor-rates, which vary very much in different parts of the county, according to the situation or the plenty or scarcity of employment, are generally collected quarterly: the highway-tax, which is heavy, particularly in the wold, is partly paid by composition, and partly worked out, eight shillings per day being allowed for the work of two horses and a cart, with one man.

All the late inclosed land in Lincolnshire is exonerated from tithes, by means of allotments of land set apart for that purpose under the provisions of the respective acts of parliament; in other parts of the county, the general practice is to compound both for the great and small tithes.

CUSTOMS BETWEEN LANDLORD AND TENANT, AND THE
INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANT.

The general custom is, to restrain a tenant from taking more than two white crops to a fallow, and also from carrying away either hay or straw from the premises: the former restriction, however, does not apply to the fen land, where the mode of farming is quite different to that in the wold; the kind of grain suitable to the one, being quite the reverse with regard to the other.

An outgoing tenant has the privilege of sowing the

spring corn until Lady-day, and of taking an offgoing crop, both of the wheat and other corn that he has upon the ground at the time of his quitting the farm, but is bound to thresh it on the premises: the most general custom, however, is, for the outgoer to be paid for the crops the value of seed and labour, also in the same way for clover and other grass seeds, and likewise for the manure, and the carting of it, laid out for the crop. The valuation of the crops does not take place before harvest, and the price of the corn is set according to the average of three market-days, taken separately once a month, between harvest-time and the ensuing Lady-day: this prevents the business from being closed for nine or twelve months, but it is so managed that it is impossible for any one to value a crop of wheat correctly much before harvest, respecting the yield or quantity: and the value is set at the time stated, for the purpose of returning to an outgoing tenant the market-price for the quantity of corn his crop is supposed to produce, that being no more than he is entitled to expect, nor more than ought to be paid by one who purchases it. Sometimes the latter finds his own seed, and sows the spring crop; but when that is the case, he is obliged to make an allowance to his predecessor for giving him permission, it being optional with the outgoer, either to sow and take the crop himself, or to have it valued to his successor, provided the taking of it is agreed to by the latter.

MODE OF FARMING, IMPLEMENTS, &c.

The crops chiefly grown in the fens are oats and wheat; the cultivation of barley is upon a very limited scale.

The general rotation is—first, cole; second, oats; third, wheat; the latter, if not sown in that course, pro-

duces too much straw to have a profitable yield: when beans are grown, a crop which is not much resorted to in any part of the county, they are sown after the wheat, for the same reason that operates to induce the sowing of wheat after oats; but a second oat crop is more frequently than any other taken after the wheat.

Clover is very seldom sown in the fen land, the soil not being at all adapted to it; but in many parts of this district lucerne grows particularly kindly, and lasts for many years: it is, consequently, more generally cultivated than any other artificial grass.

The farms in the wolds are very extensive, and generally in the highest state of cultivation; all kinds of grain, particularly barley, are produced in the greatest abundance; and the good effects of the system followed in this part of the county, are demonstratively proved by the appearance of the latest inclosures.

The rotation in this district is—first, turnips; second, barley or oats; third, seeds; fourth, wheat.

Turnips are cultivated in the wolds in Lincolnshire upon a much more extensive scale than in any other part of England, and the quantity of artificial manure employed to produce them is double what is used in any other turnip county. The largest concern of this kind in Lincolnshire is at Withcall, near Louth, conducted by Mr. Dawson, whose annual laying of turnips is six hundred acres and upwards: for this he dresses entirely with the bone manure, which is thought preferable to any other, and is generally used throughout the county.

The last two summers have most effectually proved the goodness of this manure, they having been any thing but favourable to the growth of turnips: it has been remarked in other districts, as well as here, that the land

which received the assistance of this manure, produced good crops of turnips, compared with the crops in the same neighbourhood that were encouraged by any other kind of manure.

The advantages of the bone manure do not altogether consist in the aid it affords to the land, but greatly in the saving of expense, it not being necessary to draw other kinds of manure out upon the soil.

There is also a considerable saving of expense made by drilling the seed and manure at the same time: thus ten acres of land may be manured and sown in a day, with one drill and six horses; whilst, supposing the same quantity of ground to be dressed over with dung in the usual manner, the difference of expense, added to the value of the difference of time, would nearly pay for the bone manure. The quantity of the last-mentioned manure used per acre is from twenty to twenty-five bushels, at about 2s. per bushel. One of the greatest advantages attending the use of it is the saving of time it frequently makes, with reference to a crop of turnips, by putting the seed in the ground previous to a fall of rain, there being an opportunity of doing so, by means of using this manure, seven or eight days sooner than when, in the customary method, there is so much carting to perform.

A great quantity of chalk is laid out upon the land, which answers the purpose extremely well on the light soils, by greatly assisting to close them; and with the addition of the bone manure, which creates an action in the land, it is considered fit to produce any sort of grain. The chalk is laid out in the winter; at which time there are plenty of hands, and the expense is tolerably reasonable, though very frequently considerable sums of money are earned by the men employed in this kind of labour.

The practice is, for a certain number of acres to be let to be covered with chalk; the men dig it, carry it out, and spread it upon their ground, finding their own horses for that purpose, at the rate of 7*d.* or 8*d.* per square yard in the pit.

Another manure is used in the same way as the bone, namely, rape dust, which is to be had at a reasonable rate, and is considered very good for wheat: it is produced from the cake ground down; a ton weight, which costs from six to seven pounds, will dress nearly five acres of land. In the fens there is a practice of laying clay upon the land, which is procured by the drains being constantly cleaned out, and found at various distances from the surface all through the fens: great benefit is derived from it, and it is ascertained to be a sufficient dressing for eight or ten years.

The bone and rape manure being so much used for turnips, the dung that is made is generally carried out in the winter as a top dressing, both upon the green wheat and seeds: this system is not an expensive one, the work being got through in frost when nothing else can be done, and the land being by this means brought into the highest possible state of cultivation.

Many farmers in the fens are obliged to take in beasts to keep during the winter, for the purpose of treading in their straw, they having no pasture land in their occupation on which they can turn them in the spring: if they fail in obtaining beasts, which has been frequently the case during the last few years, owing to the mildness of the winters, and through the want of buildings, there is a great waste of fodder, and much straw is often burnt. But although there is such a profusion of straw throughout the county, the hay stacks are scarcely ever thatched;

they present, in consequence, a most slovenly appearance.

This county has always been remarkable for its breeds of cattle and sheep, and for rearing them of an enormous size and weight. The cattle are now much crossed with the Durham breed, by which an animal is produced much handsomer in all its points than the original; the sheep are also crossed with the Leicestershire breed, and it is now difficult to meet with true bred Lincolnshire sheep.

The sheep are not only remarkable for their size and weight, but also for the surprising quantity and length of their wool; but whenever they are removed from their native soil into any other county, they become much deteriorated, both in carcass and in the quality of their wool; this is doubtless occasioned by the difference of soil and climate. Amazing numbers of beasts and sheep are fed in the marshes during the summer, and the quantity of meat supplied from this county to the London markets is much greater than from any other*.

* Dimensions and weight of three sheep, belonging to Mr. Dawson of *Withcall*, as taken before the Rev. John Wray, Mr. Harland, Mr. Jones, and others, on the 21st of September, 1826:

WILLIAM, (Three-shear.)

	Feet.	Inches.
Length from the top of the head to the tail	4	7
Breadth across the chine	2	2½
Girth behind the shoulders	6	1
From the top of the shoulders to the breast-end	2	7
Breadth across the rump	1	10½
Round the rump from hip to hip	3	4
From the centre of the hip to the bottom of the flank	2	5
From the bosom-point to the rump	5	6
Length of the face from the crown to the nose	0	10½
Breadth from eye to eye	0	5½
Round the crag	1	10
Round the chop	1	0
From the knee to the fetlock	0	4

Lincolnshire is perhaps superior in richness of soil to any other county, but it has nevertheless its disadvantages; having but little home consumption, and the markets for its produce being very distant are necessarily of an inferior description. The chief part of its products, therefore, can only with any advantage be sent to the metropolis, excepting towards the north, from whence a portion of them goes to Leeds.

Only one kind of plough is used throughout the county, and that a very small one, similar to the Scots plough, drawn by two horses; the system of ploughing, however, here, is not so well regulated as it is in some parts of Norfolk.

Dung-carts are scarcely ever used, all the manure being carried out in waggon and spread from them, instead of its being laid out in lumps; thus the work is begun and finished at the same time, and the chance is avoided of the crop coming up very unequal, which is sometimes the case, if particular care is not taken to shovel the lump places clean, and the more so when it is used as a top dressing, than when stirred in a fallow.

Lincolnshire is now, in general, dry and sound; when

	Feet.	Inch.
Thickness of the foreleg under the knee	0	4½
From the hock to the fetlock	0	7
Thickness of the hind-leg	0	5
Height	2	8½
Weight	27 Stone 8 Pounds	

MAGNUM BONUM, (Two-shear.)

Weight	26 Stone
Height	2 Feet 9 Inches

CARCASE K, (Shearling.)

Weight	20 Stone 4 Pounds
Height	2 Feet 7 Inches

Weight used in Lincolnshire is 14lbs. to the stone.

any under draining is done, the drains are most commonly laid in with the draining tiles, which are usually provided by the landlord, and the tenant pays for the workmanship.

The threshing is all done by machines, which are generally portable. The corn is put into the ground by the drill: the barns being very small, a great proportion of the corn is, during the summer, threshed in the open air.

The farms here are very scantily supplied with out-buildings, and what there are, are chiefly constructed (if that term can be used) with mud. Many of them have walls (if they can be so called) made only of stubble. This description does not include the barns, which are built of brick and tiled; but there is only one barn upon a farm of from one thousand to two thousand acres, and that not capable of holding more than from twenty to thirty loads of corn.

The buildings, such as they are, having been once put into good repair, when a tenant enters upon a farm, he is expected to leave them in that state when he quits, the landlord finding materials and the tenant workmanship; but in Lincolnshire, the landlords are, generally speaking, as seldom called upon for repairs as in most counties.

MONMOUTHSHIRE.

THE air of this county is temperate and healthy, and the scenery beautiful and picturesque, it bears much resemblance to that of Herefordshire.

The eastern parts are covered with wood, and the western are mountainous; great numbers of sheep, however, are fed upon the hills, and the vallies produce excellent pasture and grain.

Coals are in great abundance: the rivers are stored with various kinds of fish, and afford to the inhabitants very convenient water-carriage.

The manufacture chiefly carried on here is that of flannel, which is generally sold to the merchants of Bristol, and conveyed to the Bristol Channel by the Wye, the Usk and the Romney.

The situation of this county is well adapted for commerce; but inland navigation, which has in some parts of the kingdom been carried to so great an extent, has not met with much encouragement here. In all districts, indeed, where there are many hills and rocks, the expense must be too considerable to be incurred, unless there are valuable manufactures to pay for water-carriage, which is not precisely the case in this quarter.

The character of the soil in its lines of variety, is much the same throughout the county, consisting on the elevated ground of a red sandy loam, and in the vallies of a red clay.

PRACTICE OF TENANCY.

The farms here are most usually let only from year to year. The custom is to enter upon the meadow land at Christmas, and upon the arable at Candlemas; at which

latter period, all the land, with the exception of one field and part of the house retained by the outgoer, is taken possession of by the incoming tenant, who obtains the whole of the house and premises at May-day.

The rents are paid half yearly : the poor-rates are generally collected quarterly : the highway-tax is half paid by composition and half worked out : the tithes are usually compounded for ; but in many places the land is freed in consequence of the landlord's having purchased them.

CUSTOMS BETWEEN LANDLORD AND TENANT, AND THE
INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANT.

In some parts of the county, a tenant is allowed to sell hay and straw, but it is not the general custom, with the exception that one tenant is permitted to sell to another on the same estate. There is no restriction as to the mode of cropping the land, nor as to the quantity of wheat allowed to be sown, provided the ground is fallowed for it. A tenant is generally allowed to farm his land in whatever way he considers most advantageous to himself.

On quitting a farm, the outgoing tenant, as above stated, retains part of the house and one field till May-day, for the purpose of making use of his straw.

He receives from the wheat crop that he sows, two-thirds, if the ground was fallowed ; but only one half, if it be a brush crop : the incomer has the remainder on account of his paying rent for the whole of the land from the time of his entering, the tithe upon the grain being always taken before the division is made.

The incomer is not bound by custom to pay for anything but the grass seeds upon the ground, the value of seed and labour, it being at his option to plough the land for his fallows or for the spring crop. He has the benefit of

all the manure made from the outgoer's proportion of the crop, which the latter is bound to feed upon the premises, gratis. If the incomer agrees to take the whole of the wheat crop, which is sometimes the case, he has only to pay the value of the outgoer's proportion, he being entitled to his third, and to deduct the tithe.

MODE OF FARMING, IMPLEMENTS, &c.

The ground is, in general, very clean, and kept in good order; the regulation of the cropping might, however, be very much amended. The wheat, which is chiefly fallowed for, is most commonly ploughed in. Scarcely any other kind of grain is sown than wheat, oats, and barley. Upon the clay, the rotation is—first, fallow; second, wheat; third, oats; fourth, seeds; and upon the sandy soil, first, turnips; second, barley; third, seeds; fourth, oats; and then a fallow is made for wheat if the land is not very clean, but very frequently a second crop of wheat is sown after the oats.

The manure chiefly used is lime, which is always laid upon the land in the spring or during the summer, it being scarcely ever used in the autumn. Great part of the ground is ploughed with oxen, which are most frequently driven in single harness. The cattle bred here are of the Herefordshire breed: they are much finer beasts than those of the same breed kept in the adjoining counties, excepting in that from which they derive their name and origin. Much draining is done in various parts of this county, the chief proportion of which is laid in with stone or tiles; the landlord generally pays half the expense.

The repairs of the outbuildings, which are chiefly constructed of stone and stone-slate, are invariably at the charge of the landlord.

NORTHUMBERLAND.

THE air of this county is not so cold as that of some of the other northern districts; being situated in a narrow tract between the German Ocean and the Irish Sea, it is warmed by vapours from the sea in the same manner as the whole island of Britain. On the eastern side of the county, or towards the sea-coast, the ground is well cultivated and produces excellent crops; and near the banks of all the rivers there are fine meadows, which afford an abundance of pasture for cattle.

The western side of the county is mountainous, and is mostly covered with numerous flocks of sheep.

Coals, as is well known, form the great source of the wealth of this county, immense quantities being raised from the pits for the supply of the metropolis and other markets.

There is a most striking contrast between this and the adjoining county of Durham, not arising from difference of soil, but merely from that of management, and the habits of the people. The soil of Northumberland, entering it from Durham, is of much the same character, in general, as that of the latter, it being a reddish kind of clay, which produces good crops of corn, particularly of wheat; towards the coast, it becomes more of a loamy nature. The tract of land between Alnwick and Berwick, through the richness of the soil, the mode of its management, and the picturesqueness of the scenery, is extremely beautiful.

PRACTICE OF TENANCY.

The usual period for entering upon a farm in this county is May-day. Leases are granted for seven, fourteen, or twenty-one years, which in general contain various restrictions.

The rents are paid half yearly: the highway-tax is generally worked out: the tithes are valued every year, the landlord most commonly takes them upon himself, and compounds for them. The poor are supported by voluntary contributions received at the church-door; and if these are insufficient, the landholders are looked to for a further supply. No poor-rates are collected, (that is to say, in the ordinary method, as practised in other counties;) if a man is able to work, he receives nothing from the parish, except that they provide him with a residence.

CUSTOMS BETWEEN LANDLORD AND TENANT, AND THE INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANT.

In order that an incoming tenant may not be put to the inconvenience of entering a farm without having hay upon it sufficient for his cattle, the landlord binds the tenant in possession, when about to quit, neither to cut nor feed the seeds during the last year of his lease, after harvest, and compels him to leave them for the incomer, that the latter may cut them for hay when he enters upon the farm. In some places, the landlord, when he first lets a farm, sows the seeds himself, and then the tenant is bound to leave the same quantity of seeds upon the ground when he quits a farm, as he found upon it when he entered.

The tenants, in general, are not allowed to sell hay or straw, being obliged to feed it all upon the premises. In

a few instances, where this is not the case, they are bound to bring back a load of manure for every load of hay or straw carried off. They likewise covenant never to exceed two white crops with a green one between them after a fallow, manure being laid on for the first white crop.

An outgoing tenant takes all the corn crops that are upon the ground when he leaves a farm, and threshes them upon the premises, leaving the straw for the in-comer as a remuneration for assisting in threshing the corn and carrying it to market. All that the in-comer has to pay for on entering a farm are the grass seeds, the breaking up of fallows, and for manure upon the premises. If the landlord sowed the seeds, they are not paid for by the in-comer, but he is bound to leave them in the same way as his predecessor.

MODE OF FARMING, IMPLEMENTS, &c.

There being but very little meadow grass in this county, it becomes necessary to resort to a regular succession of crops.

The system generally followed is to fallow for wheat, and the rotation is—first, fallow ; second, wheat ; third, seeds ; fourth, oats, and fallow again for wheat. In some places, a larger proportion of the farm is sown with grass seeds, in order that the land may lie two years instead of one between the white crops. Part of the seeds are two years old, and the remaining proportion one ; the two year old seeds are generally fed off, and the ground is sown with oats ; the one year old seeds are cut for hay, and left to be fed off the succeeding year.

But few turnips are grown in this county, excepting on the land adjoining the coast ; they are, great part of

them, pulled and fed upon pasture land with beasts or sheep; but not many, either of cattle or sheep, are prepared for the butcher.

The manure chiefly used is lime, which is obtained at a reasonable rate, there being a great abundance of limestone as well as fuel on the spot. Fresh mould and lime are frequently mixed together: the effect of the latter article must, in a great measure, be lost from its being so often applied. If tares were sown after the oats, either to be fed off, ploughed in, or cut for the cattle, they would mellow the ground and produce fresh vegetable matter for the lime to act upon, which it always requires.

Waggons are never employed, either in harvest or at any other time, the corn being carried in long open framed carts, and the manure in a small single-horse dung cart, which is precisely the same as the Scots system.

The drill is only used for the few turnips that are grown, the corn being generally sown by hand: the county not being overburdened with population, the corn is always threshed by the flail.

The outbuildings are, in general, very good, and the farm-houses and cottages comfortable and respectable: they are all chiefly constructed with sandstone and pantiles, and are kept in repair by the landlord.

NORTHAMPTONSHIRE.

THE salubrious air of this county is ascribed as the reason why so many of the nobility have seats in it. Although it is not so extensive as some, yet there are more mansion-houses in it than in any other county in England.

The soil is, for the greater part, rich ; it consists either of a strong black land, or, in different quarters, of a red loam.

The produce of Northamptonshire is considerable, both with reference to grain and meat. The principal manufactures are those of shalloons, boots and shoes, and all sorts of leather caps.

PRACTICE OF TENANCY.

The usual time for entering upon a farm is at Lady-day ; the farms are most commonly let only from year to year.

The rents are paid half-yearly : the poor-rates, which vary considerably in different parts of the county, are collected in some places quarterly, and in others monthly : the highway-tax is generally half worked out, and half paid by composition.

In various parts of Northamptonshire the land is exonerated from tithes, by means of allotments of ground, but the greater proportion is titheable ; both the great and small tithes, however, are usually compounded for.

CUSTOMS BETWEEN LANDLORD AND TENANT, AND THE
INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANT.

A tenant is, in general, restrained from removing either hay or straw from the premises. The system of cultivation, within the limits of which he is confined, will not allow him to exceed two crops to a fallow; but there is no general restriction as to the quantity of wheat that may be sown upon a farm, and it is usually the practice of the tenant to sow all he can when he quits.

An outgoing tenant, on quitting a farm, gives up possession of the house, premises, and land altogether, and receives from his successor for the wheat he leaves upon the ground, the value of the seed and labour, including the summer fallow, if it was a clear one during the whole of the summer, but only the value of the seed and labour if sown after any other crop, that being termed a bastard fallow. He likewise receives the value of the seed and labour for all the seeds he leaves upon the ground, together with any winter ploughing he may perform, such as breaking up winter fallows, from which he derives no benefit, but he cannot touch the land intended for the spring crop, without having authority for that purpose from the succeeding tenant.

The incomer is compelled, by the general custom, to take the wheat crop, the grass seeds upon the ground, and to pay for all fallowed land from which he receives the whole of the benefit, by valuation. He has, however, the privilege of ploughing the land himself for the spring crop, but he cannot enter for that purpose before Lady-day, without permission from the tenant in possession; he receives, however, the benefit of all the manure without any charge.

MODE OF FARMING, IMPLEMENTS, &c.

The mode of farming generally practised in Northamptonshire, is the same that has been in use for many years, nor does there appear to be much inclination to alter the system.

In the strong land, the rotation is—first, fallow; second, wheat; third, beans; which some farmers begin and finish with. No one, perhaps, has any right to find fault with them for distressing the land, but they certainly might make more of it than they do. The rotation on the loamy soil is—first, turnips; second, barley; third, seeds; fourth, wheat: the ground is, in general, kept very clean, and in very fair condition.

Some of the land in this county lies in a very wet state, but it might be greatly improved by drainage. The tenant, however, has, in this respect, not much encouragement given him, as, in general, the expense falls entirely upon himself. What draining is performed on the arable land chiefly consists of wood and straw; on pasture land, the draining is principally done with the turf.

The drill is very little used, and the same may be said of threshing machines; the wheat, when sown upon a fallow, is invariably ploughed in.

The outbuildings that have been lately erected are chiefly built with brick, or stone and tiles, but most of the buildings are thatched; they are kept in repair at the expense of the landlord.

NORFOLK.

THERE are in this county a variety of soils; that which may be said to form the general surface, is a light sand; in some places so entirely a sand that the poorest forest land may be put in comparison with it; but, from the mode of cultivation which is in general practised, all the different sorts of land are rendered tolerably productive.

The air in Norfolk, like that of all other districts, varies according to situation; in the interior, it is sharp; and, from the dryness of the soil, the climate is considered very healthy, but vegetation is not produced at so early a stage, as in some of the inland or more southern counties.

The western part of the county presents an extensive tract of fen land, which is laid as dry and is as productive as any other quarter. Clay is much nearer the surface in the fen land than in other districts, and when ploughed at the usual depth is frequently turned up from one end of the inclosure to the other.

In the north, a poor light sand generally predominates; but in the eastern and interior parts of the county, the greater proportion of the soil is rich, consisting of grazing and strong wheat land, and of light sandy loam.

PRACTICE OF TENANCY.

The farms in this county are most of them very extensive; the greater part have very little, if any, pasture land belonging to them.

Leases are generally granted for seven or fourteen

years ; a few for twenty-one. The usual time for entering upon a farm is at Michaelmas, when a tenant takes possession of the house and other premises, and of the land.

The rents are usually paid half yearly: the poor-rates are in some places collected every six months, but generally quarterly: the highway-tax is either worked out or compounded for, whichever way is found most convenient. The tithes, which are extremely heavy, are usually paid by composition.

CUSTOMS BETWEEN LANDLORD AND TENANT, AND THE
INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANT.

According to the custom between landlord and tenant in this county, the land cannot well be otherwise than in good condition: upon many of the farms the prohibitions are very severe.

A tenant is in general bound to farm the land in a regular course, by taking a fourth of the arable soil for wheat, a fourth for barley or spring corn, the same proportion for seeds, and the remaining part for turnips. In some places he is restrained from sowing more than a given proportion of the land with oats, as part of his spring crop, perhaps only one field; sometimes no oats are allowed to be sown, but only barley, an oat crop being considered to impoverish the land far more than barley.

The restriction is general as to hay and straw, the whole of which is to be spent upon the premises: there is likewise very commonly prescribed a certain quantity of draining, hedging and ditching to be performed every year.

A tenant quitting a farm at Michaelmas has his last year's crop to thresh, which he either performs himself or pays his successor for doing it. The incoming tenant

has the chaff and the straw, in return for carrying out the corn when sold, or ready for market.

The outgoer is not paid for any ploughings or for any work that he may do; he only receives money for what he leaves growing upon the land: for the crops on the ground, either of turnips, seeds, or clover lays, he is paid according to the valuation of two individuals, chosen one by each party. If the turnip crop fails, the outgoer can claim nothing for labour.

The incomer generally sows the wheat crop, but he cannot enter on the farm before Michaelmas day, without permission from the outgoer; nor can the latter plough the land and charge it without being authorized by the incomer. A tenant, however, entering at Michaelmas, and having all his land to plough after that period for his wheat crop, is placed in a very awkward situation, especially if, as sometimes happens, the outgoer, through caprice, will neither plough the land himself, nor let his successor enter for the purpose of carrying that operation into effect, before the time of giving up possession.

The incomer, besides paying by valuation for the grass seeds and turnips, has to take all the hay, but he has the benefit of the whole of the dung left upon the premises, without any charge.

Although a tenant may be bound to make sufficient manure for the turnip crop, he, in consequence of being allowed nothing for the dung which he leaves upon the farm, is naturally as sparing of his hay as possible, as, on account of losing the greatest profit in feeding, which is the dung or the value of it, he considers it more to his advantage, rather than run the risk of the markets, and also to save the expense and trouble of feeding, to keep all the hay he can, and have it valued to his successor, a

practice which very often operates much to the disadvantage of the incomer, a quantity of hay being thrown upon him which he does not want, besides his being drained of his money at a time when, above all others, he most stands in need of it,—but he is obliged to conform to the custom of the county.

MODE OF FARMING, IMPLEMENTS, &c.

Turnip-husbandry forms the basis of the Norfolk system of cultivation, which has been the making of the land and of the county in general. Some parts of it may not be so highly cultivated; but taken as a whole, Norfolk undoubtedly excels any other county in England, both in neatness and in the condition of the soil: the nature and quality of the land, however, must be mainly taken into consideration, as well as its management.

Swedish turnips are not so generally grown in this county, as in many other quarters. The mangel wurzel and the white turnip are the principal roots; the former is pulled and kept for winter feeding; it is very much used with boiled linseed, cracked barley, and cut hay, for stalled beasts.

The usual rotation is—first, turnips; second, barley; third, seeds; fourth, wheat: the seeds, in general, scarcely ever remain down longer than a year.

But little land is left between the plough and the hedge, and what the plough cannot take upon the fallows adjoining the hedges is generally done by the spade, whilst the ditches are all kept clear; pursuing this system every time the field is fallowed, causes no more expense than the allowing them to remain double the time, when they would require twice the labour. In this one particular, the Norfolk farmers are remarkably attentive; nor can they be charged with any neglect, except that their stacks are not

so neat as they might be made, though this, perhaps, may not be material ; still, however, a neat stack-yard greatly adds to the appearance of a farm.

Where the land requires draining, there is not much hesitation in doing it ; and where stone can be had, it is used for that purpose, but the materials generally applied are wood and straw.

The drill is used for every kind of grain, excepting beans, which are generally planted by the dibble ; in some parts of the county too much both of wheat and barley is drilled per acre, more straw being thus produced than the ground can bear, and, consequently, there are a great many under-ears, which not only hurt the sample, but are a great drawback upon the produce. Threshing machines are generally used, and likewise a high-wheeled plough, which, more than any other, allows the draught of the horses to come nearer to the work. The end of the plough rests upon a frame, and by means of moving the latter upwards and downwards, is let into the ground deeper or lighter, whichever may be required, whilst the horses being attached to the frame, instead of the end of the plough, the former having a communication by means of a chain with nearly the centre of it, the plough, in consequence, goes much lighter ; but the ease with which the Norfolk ploughs are drawn, arises, in a great degree, from the make and shape of the ploughshare.

The shares in the Norfolk ploughs are generally wide enough to cover the wing, or rather to cut the whole width of the furrow, which being done, there is only the turning of the furrow left for the draught of the horses : other ploughs, with small shares, cut only half the width, and thus not only the turning of the furrow, but the sepa-

rating by force of the other half, is left to the draught of the horses, which renders the work doubly laborious. No plough is drawn by more than two horses, and very frequently two oxen are substituted; rollers and wag-gons are generally used with the horses driven double, and even carts are sometimes seen drawn in the same way.

The outbuildings, which are very extensive, and uncommonly convenient, are chiefly constructed of brick and pantiles; thatched buildings are rarely to be seen in Norfolk; the repairs are generally made at the expense of the landlord.

NOTTINGHAMSHIRE.

THE air of this county is pure and salubrious, and it is generally esteemed one of the healthiest spots in England: it frequently, however, suffers from the want of rain, whilst others have an abundance; and it is generally remarked, that, from whatever cause, less rain falls here than in any other district.

There is a great inequality of surface in Nottinghamshire, sufficient, at least, to prevent the sameness of a flat, though there are no mountains, and the soil and cultivation materially differ. The county may be said to be divided into four distinct districts, one containing coal, limestone, and quarries of excellent building stone, another clay, another hazle-mould, and another forest-land, which is very extensive, but the chief part of which is now in a state of cultivation, and is rendered extremely useful, notwithstanding the thin quality of the soil.

The western parts of the county abound with coal, and there are several quarries of exceedingly hard stone, which is much used by the inhabitants in laying the floors of their houses: the southern and eastern parts are particularly fertile in corn.

The principal manufactures here are those of stockings, glass, and earthenware; there are also great quantities of malt made, and very fine ale brewed, all which articles are sent to London, as well as to other parts of the kingdom.

PRACTICE OF TENANCY.

The tenants in general in this county hold only at will; the general time of entering upon a farm is at Lady-day, but in the northern part of the county, at Michaelmas, and the house at Lady-day: the customs vary according to the difference of the takings.

The rents are paid half-yearly: the poor-rates, which are very heavy, are collected as often as they are required in the course of the year: the highway-tax is generally outset by working three days on the turnpike, and three days on the bye-roads, for every 20*l.* rent, with two horses and a cart: the tithes are seldom taken in kind; the great tithe is valued every year and compounded for; the small tithes, which include hay, turnips, potatoes, cows, sheep, wool, pigs, and geese, are generally paid by a permanent value being set upon them.

CUSTOMS BETWEEN LANDLORD AND TENANT, AND THE INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANT.

The usual practice is not to allow either hay or straw to be taken from the premises; but there is no general restriction either as to the cultivation or the cropping of the land, excepting that where the tenant enters at Michaelmas, he is bound to take but three crops to a fallow, and never two white ones successively. Where the entry is at Michaelmas, the outgoer is paid by valuation either upon wheat or turnips, for all the seed and labour he has bestowed upon the land for that crop; likewise for the seed and labour upon the clover, or other grass seeds, and for all the ploughing he can do before Michaelmas: for all extra management, such as manuring with bones,

or other artificial manure, he is paid, if the first crop, the full value of the manure, if the second, only half tillage, and so on, for several years: for dung he is allowed nothing, neither for that which he leaves in the yards, nor for what he has laid out upon the land; but under the general custom of entry (at Lady-day) the outgoer is paid for all kind of manure, both in and out of the yards, from which he has derived no benefit; also for seed and labour, and for all the ploughing he can do until Lady-day, the same as a Michaelmas tenant.

The incomer, under either custom, has to pay for the crops upon the ground; but, entering at Michaelmas, he has not to pay near so much as if he enters at Lady-day, not only from having the benefit of the dung, but from there not being time for the outgoer to plough more land than he requires for his Michaelmas season, whilst a tenant quitting at Lady-day has the opportunity of breaking up all the fallows, and ploughing and sowing the land for the incomer's spring crop, it being entirely optional with him to allow his successor to come upon the farm to plough before Lady-day, or not.

Under either a Michaelmas, or the general time of entry, an outgoing tenant does not take the last crop of corn that he sows, he having it valued to his successor; but each of them is bound to feed the last crop that is harvested, upon the premises: thus a Michaelmas outgoer requires the use of the yards and buildings till the ensuing Lady-day, whilst the Lady-day outgoer quits the land and premises all at that period, he having had the same time to feed his crop as the Michaelmas outgoer: if any hay or straw is left after that period, it is optional with the incomer to take it or not; if he declines

it, the hay or straw is sold to any other person, but it must, nevertheless, be fed upon the premises.

MODE OF FARMING, IMPLEMENTS, &c.

The soil in the northern part of the county is rich and capable of producing any kind of root or grain; the land, especially in the neighbourhood of Blythe, is kept in most excellent condition, and is in as high a state of cultivation as any in England.

The system adopted in this quarter is—first, turnips; second, barley or oats; third, seeds; fourth, wheat; fifth, peas: a considerable quantity of spring and winter cabbage is planted, which is fed off by sheep, one sort before the turnips are begun upon, and the other after they are finished; all this land comes in for wheat or barley.

The forest land bears excellent crops of turnips and barley; the general practice is to sow but little wheat upon it; this kind of land is very valuable to the clay-land farms, it being kept entirely for their sheep, and the one assisting the other.

The clay-land farms, which are chiefly towards the western side of the county, are very badly managed, there being no restriction upon them as to the mode of cropping: the rotation is—first, fallow; second, wheat; third, seeds; fourth, wheat; fifth, oats; but very frequently a second crop of wheat is taken before the seeds are sown. The bone manure is very generally used with the drill for turnips, and the seeds have a top-dressing with dung, which brings the land into high condition for wheat. The drill is scarcely ever used for wheat, and

frequently not for barley: the wheat is now generally sown by hand after the land-press has been used upon the soil; this implement is drawn by one horse, and follows the labour of two ploughs whilst the latter are working.

The simplicity of the land-press* forms a powerful motive to induce its general use; nor would any person occupying very light land, and who has the slightest knowledge of it, ever be without one. In some counties an effect similar to that produced by it is sometimes endeavoured to be brought about by means of the wheels of a narrow-wheeled dung-cart; but though the utility of it is thus shewn, the benefit is not equally the same. The implement itself merely consists of a pair of shafts for the horse, and an axletree with two cast-iron wheels at one end, and a small balance-wheel at the other. The horse that draws it goes up the furrow after the last plough, and the two cast-iron wheels, one of which is moveable according to the width of the furrow, from seven to twenty-two inches, run in the seam of the furrow made by each plough; the other wheel, running upon the whole ground merely as a balance, is likewise moveable, in order that, when passing declining ground, or on a side hill, it can either be raised or lowered as required; and thus the land-press is kept upon a level, otherwise the balance-wheel being on the lowest ground, great part of the weight would fall upon it, and the effect would be lost. From the weight of the two cast-iron wheels, which are of a conical shape, the ground is pressed in seams, the same as if they had been drawn out by a hoe, with this difference, however, that the land is closed by the weight, and

* See plate of Land-press on an improved principle.

the seed being sown by hand all runs into the seams, they being sufficiently deep to prevent the harrows from disturbing it; the seed comes up afterwards as true as peas ever did when sown in a garden.

This implement has not long been used in Nottinghamshire, but on the light soils it is said to answer a better purpose than any invention hitherto introduced, particularly with reference to wheat, which, from the land being closed, and the seed secured a good depth in the earth, is in a great measure prevented from falling at the root before harvest time; and upon light land the ground cannot be made too close in order to have the full benefit of a wheat crop.

The outbuildings, which are spacious and very convenient, are chiefly constructed of brick and tiles; after being once put into good repair, the tenant is expected to keep them in that state at his own expense, during the time he occupies them.

OXFORDSHIRE.

A LARGE tract of land in this county is bleakly situated, like the hills in Gloucestershire, and is very little superior to them in the quality of the soil. Oxfordshire, in general, though in some places very productive, has but very little depth of soil, there being, more commonly than anything else, a substratum of poor hungry gravel. There is but little trade here, with the exception of that arising from the woollen manufacture at Witney; malt, however, is made in considerable quantities, and sent to the London markets.

PRACTICE OF TENANCY.

The general practice is to enter upon farms at Michaelmas: leases are granted for seven or fourteen years: at Michaelmas, the incoming tenant takes possession of the house and all the land, but the outgoing retains the use of the out-buildings till Lady-day.

The rents are paid half-yearly: the poor-rates, which are, in many places, collected by a permanent overseer, are called for quarterly: the highway-tax is most frequently worked out: the great and small tithes are chiefly compounded for.

CUSTOMS BETWEEN LANDLORD AND TENANT, AND THE INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANT.

A tenant is, in general, restrained from carrying off either hay or straw from the premises; but he is not

bound to adopt any particular mode of cultivation, nor is he restricted with regard to the quantity of land to be sown with wheat, he being usually allowed to pursue any system that he considers most advantageous to himself.

An outgoing tenant, quitting at Michaelmas, sows the wheat crop before he gives up possession, but he must have it all done before or by that time. He is paid for the wheat, according to the prevailing custom, by his successor, the value of seed and labour, and likewise in the same way for seeds, and turnips; and for ploughings, harrowings, and dung carting, performed during the winter and summer, on a turnip or wheat fallow: the dung itself he is not paid for; and although he is bound to feed his last crop of hay and corn that he harvests, upon the premises, the incomer claims all the manure.

MODE OF FARMING, IMPLEMENTS, &c.

The principal dependence of the farmer here is upon barley, the crops of which, particularly in the northern part of the county, are very abundant, frequently yielding from six to seven quarters per acre, and, from the nature of the soil, it is thought by the maltsters to be equal if not superior to any other barley.

Turnip husbandry is generally practised throughout the county: the rotation is—first, turnips; second, barley; third, seeds, which remain for two years; fourth, wheat. On some of the hills in Oxfordshire, a practice prevails of sowing sainfoin, which is suffered to remain as long as any benefit can be derived from it; when the plant no longer pays for standing, the land is pared by the breast plough, and the surface burnt, as a manure for turnips: this plan is frequently adopted on clover

lays, and forms the chief article of manure to which recourse is had ; but if the Wiltshire system, the same as has been recommended in the county of Gloucester, was practised here, it would be found equally beneficial.

The wheat is, in general, sown very early here ; in some parts old wheat is resorted to, from a wish to have it in the ground a month or six weeks before Michaelmas ; when the latter is used, neither lime, nor brine, nor anything else is ever applied, to prevent smut, but always to new wheat. No reason is given for sowing old wheat without any preparation, further than that it does not require it : if that is the case, old wheat has properties attached to it which are not known to every one ; but whether it requires it or not, it is certain that old wheat is found to be, equally with the new, subject to the smut*.

The greater part of the corn is sown by hand : threshing machines are very little used : the single-wheel plough is more generally employed than any other.

The outbuildings, which are for the most part commodious, are, in some places, constructed with stone and stone slate, but they are, in general, thatched, and frequently weather-boarded ; they are kept in repair at the expense of the landlord.

* For the causes of, and opinions respecting the means of preventing, smut in wheat, see Appendix II.

RUTLANDSHIRE.

THIS county is very beautifully situated: there is an interspersion of hills and vallies, which gives a sufficient irregularity to the surface; but the hills are, generally, of an ascent so gradual as to allow them to be favorably cultivated.

The soil is very rich, and produces most excellent wheat crops: the pasture is not excelled by that of any of the neighbouring counties.

The northern part of the county chiefly consists of grazing land, which feeds great numbers of sheep and cattle; in the south there is more arable land, which is divided into what are called open-field farms, they not having upon them a fence of any kind.

The air is considered to be particularly salubrious: the land in some of the vales is equal to any in the United Kingdom, and the county throughout bears a most fertile and picturesque aspect.

The principal productions of Rutlandshire arise from the cultivation of the soil, and provisions are everywhere in great abundance. There is no manufacture worthy of particular remark.

PRACTICE OF TENANCY.

The farms here are generally held at will: the usual time for entering upon them is at Lady-day.

The rents are paid half-yearly; the poor-rates generally also once in six months in the southern part of the

county: the highway-tax, where the rent is at or under 50*l.*, is paid by composition; when above 50*l.*, it is out-set by work, which does not give a small farmer a fair chance: the land is, in general, free from tithes, by virtue of allotments, but where it is subject to them they are usually compounded for.

CUSTOMS BETWEEN LANDLORD AND TENANT, AND THE
INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANT.

A tenant is restrained from selling either hay or straw, being bound to feed and use the whole upon the farm: with the exception, however, of this restriction, he is generally allowed to cultivate the land as he pleases, provided he pays the rent; but the customs in the southern part of the county materially differ from those in other quarters.

When a tenant quits a farm, the general custom is, for the incomer to take the wheat crop, the turnips, and seeds, at a valuation, and to pay for all the ploughings and work upon the fallows made for wheat or turnips, including the dung carting, but the dung itself is not paid for; he is also charged for any ploughing that has been done during the winter, such as breaking up for a fallow. The incomer has the privilege of ploughing himself for the spring crop, but he cannot enter upon the land before Lady-day, without permission from the tenant in possession. In the southern part of the county, the outgoer is paid for the dung he leaves upon a farm, and is allowed to plough for and sow the spring crop, and charge it to his successor, but is only paid besides for the seed and labour upon his wheat or turnip crops, and nothing for his fallows. Thus the outgoer has no interest

in the last crop, and the farm is frequently left in a state very disadvantageous to the incomer, the former receiving no more if he works the land all the summer, than if he only ploughs it once and sows the crop.

MODE OF FARMING, IMPLEMENTS, &c.

Until within a few years past, the general mode of farming was two crops and a fallow,—first, fallow; second, wheat; third, beans: but another rotation, viz.—first, turnips; second, barley; third, seeds; fourth, wheat, is now very much practised.

Bone manure is, in the southern part of the county, very commonly used for the growth of turnips: in consequence of the change of system, great part of the corn, as well as of the turnips, is put into the ground by the drill, which, as in other districts, carries both the manure and the seeds.

The drains are most commonly formed by means of draining tiles; the general custom is, for the expense to be shared between the landlord and tenant.

The outbuildings, which, generally speaking, are upon rather a limited scale, are chiefly constructed of brick, and thatched; they are kept in repair by the tenant.

SHROPSHIRE.

THE products of this county are very numerous, such as lead, copper, iron, limestone, pipeclay, &c.; there are also a great number of coal pits.

The land is chiefly employed in tillage, and the soil in general fertile; it varies, however, according to situation, yielding in the north and eastern parts all kinds of corn, whilst the south and west, being more hilly and partly devoted to pasture, feed great numbers of sheep and cattle.

The soil in the eastern part of the county consists of a red sandy loam, which produces wheat and barley in abundance, those being the chief productions of the cultivated land. Towards the south a mixture of clay and loam is the most prevalent soil, which forms a strong working land, but is very productive.

PRACTICE OF TENANCY.

Lady-day is the usual time for entering upon a farm, at which period possession is given of the house and land; in some places, the incoming tenant is allowed to take possession of the meadow land at Candlemas, in order that he may have an opportunity of watering, of carting manure, or of repairing the fences: but where many sheep are kept this practice does not prevail, the outgoer requiring the feed as long as he remains upon the farm.

The farms in general are held only from year to year:

the rents are paid half-yearly: the poor-rates are collected in some places every six months, but in others much oftener, and generally by a permanent overseer, who collects the rate as it is required: the highway-tax is half paid by composition and half worked out: the great tithes are in most places valued every year, and either taken in kind or compounded for; the small tithes are generally paid by composition.

CUSTOMS BETWEEN LANDLORD AND TENANT, AND THE
INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANT.

A tenant in general is not restricted as to any particular mode of cultivation; but he is bound to feed and use all the hay and straw upon the premises, for which purpose he is allowed part of the buildings for his proportion of the last crop, during the term of six months after he has given up possession of the farm. For any lime he brings upon the land, he is usually allowed, when he quits the farm, a valuation for two years back, the whole value if he laid it on during the year of his leaving, and half if the year before. Some landlords bind their tenants to draw a certain number of loads of lime upon the land every year, but this is only a partial custom; the same may be said with reference to restricting a tenant to sow only a certain proportion of his land with wheat. The outgoer receives two-thirds of his wheat crop after deducting the tithe, the remainder belongs to the incomer, who pays rent from the time that he enters for the whole of the land. The outgoer is paid the value of the seed for the seeds upon the ground; but all the fallows and dung are left for the benefit of the incomer, without any charge.

The incomer cannot enter upon the land before Lady-day, to plough for his spring crop, without permission from his predecessor; nor can the outgoer plough the land either for fallow or for the spring crop, and charge it to the incomer, without being requested or hired to do it by the latter. The incomer has nothing to pay on entering a farm, excepting the value of the clover or other grass seeds; but he is subject to the same inconvenience that exists in many counties, of not being able to have his land ploughed in proper time for his spring season.

MODE OF FARMING, IMPLEMENTS, &c.

Turnips are generally grown throughout the county, and to a considerable extent, particularly in the eastern part of it, where, during the winter, they serve for the food of great numbers of sheep and cattle. The practice of pulling and feeding the turnips on pasture land is much adopted. The land in many parts, from the want of water furrows, is much more tender than it otherwise would be; and where a field is on a descent, it may frequently be observed that, in consequence of the water being allowed to run from the summit to the base, and thus constantly washing down the surface, the base has gradually risen until it has become much higher than the middle part: there undoubtedly is land in the county of such a nature that it does not require a water-furrow, but there is not so much of it as to induce the general neglect of so useful a practice.

Very few oats are grown, and there being no restriction with reference to taking two white crops successively, they are generally sown in the wheat stubbles: the usual rotation is—first, turnips; second, barley; third, seeds or peas; fourth, wheat; fifth, oats, if any are grown:

peas are very frequently sown, and with regard to them a most excellent system is adopted ; as soon as the peas are two or three inches out of the ground, which is about the time they require to be hoed, the land is limed, the lime being first spread and then covered in by the hoe : this is not only a great security against the destruction caused by slugs, but it also prepares and manures the land for wheat, which derives much more benefit from the lime being laid on at that time, than if done in the autumn, the lime having more time to bring itself into action with the land, besides having none of its qualities destroyed by a continuation of wet : its being laid in the winter or autumn is the reason why, in some counties, it is supposed to be of no service to the succeeding wheat crop, but of most benefit to the seeds or spring crop.

The double-furrow ploughs are in general use here ; the single ploughs are of the same construction, having two wheels, which require no one to hold them if the ground is free from stones, but only a man to turn them at the end of the work : the ploughing in this county, as well as in others where the same sort of plough is used, is generally attended by only one person, who drives the horses, and at the end of the work turns the plough, which cannot penetrate deeper, or be shallower, or out of the furrow on account of the wheels. There is another kind of plough used very generally, which would be found highly beneficial upon all lands where wheat is sown in clover lays, or, in fact, for any grain. It is known by the name of the skim-coulter plough, which sufficiently describes it : it has a kind of share fixed to the coulter, which pares the surface and turns it over before the plough, and the whole depth of the

furrow is then turned upon it, which entirely buries grass or any other rubbish that may grow upon the surface; which also keeps the land clean, and frequently prevents the wire-worm from destroying the wheat.

The drill is generally used for turnips, but not so commonly for grain: the principal part of the corn is threshed by the flail.

Under-draining is in some parts of the county tolerably attended to, but not generally; the landlord either finds draining tiles, or pays half the expense if any other material is used.

The outbuildings are in general upon a very limited scale, in consequence of which the cattle are kept out during the winter upon the pastures, and fed chiefly with turnips. They are chiefly constructed with brick and tiles, and are in most places kept in repair at the expense of the landlord.

SOMERSETSHIRE.

MANY parts of this county present a striking resemblance to several districts in South Wales, and the inhabitants also, in their appearance and mode of employing themselves, seem very closely to copy the Welsh.

On the eastern side of Somersetshire, in particular, the same kind of scenery is combined as in South Wales, and all through the county there seems to be the same want of industry and method amongst the agricultural classes, they being in general equally negligent respecting the appearance of their premises. The inhabitants of Somersetshire are usually plain and simple in their manners, but in the company of strangers they are very reserved, constantly boasting of their own superiority, and considering the people of other parts of the Empire as greatly inferior to themselves. This, however, only applies to the lower classes, whose labour confines them to one spot, whose ideas in consequence become very contracted, and who in reality themselves deserve the epithets which they bestow upon the people of other districts. They seem, when they are employed, as if they would rather stand still than exert themselves: they are allowed to use the same absurd kind of long-handled shovels as the labourers in South Wales, which only answers the purpose of indulging a man in habits of indolence, as there can be no doubt that he is incapable of performing half the work with them that he might do with those of a proper make and size.

The soil is in general well adapted to all the different purposes of husbandry, both for producing grain and

feeding cattle; vast numbers of the latter are sold to the country drovers, and being fed on the many fine commons there are, at a small expense, they become profitable items in trade, and annually realize considerable sums.

In the eastern part of the county the land is but indifferent, it being, notwithstanding a number of hills and much gravel, extremely wet, owing to springs; and thus for some distance towards the interior of the county, there is frequently a great risk incurred in turning sheep upon the ground.

The southern quarter, towards Dorsetshire, is hilly, but tolerably well cultivated: throughout the county, especially in a south-western direction, there is an interspersion of remarkably fertile vales.

The Quantock Hills, with frequent downs and extensive heaths, are on the western side of the county; and towards its centre there are many fens and marshy moors, and several districts of poor land, having chiefly limestone for a substratum.

The cattle kept here are chiefly those of the Devonshire breed, many of which are prepared for the butcher in different parts of the county: its chief productions, however, are those of the dairies, and a great part of the county being devoted to pasture for the supply of them, the farmers in many places depend upon them altogether.

Amongst the manufactures of Somersetshire, comprising woollen goods and other articles, may be placed that of cider, which is made here in considerable quantities.

PRACTICE OF TENANCY.

The period for entering upon a farm throughout the county is Lady-day: leases are usually granted for eight or twelve years.

At Lady-day, the incoming tenant takes possession of the whole of the land except that portion of it upon which the wheat crop is growing, that being generally held by the outgoer, together with the use of the barns and yards, until Midsummer twelvemonth after he gives up possession ; and he most frequently harvests and threshes the wheat crop on the premises at his own expense, leaving the straw and dung for the benefit of his successor.

The rents are in most places paid half yearly ; the poor-rates are collected quarterly ; the highway-tax is partly compounded for and partly worked out ; the tithes are generally paid by composition.

CUSTOMS BETWEEN LANDLORD AND TENANT, AND THE
INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANT.

A tenant is bound to expend on the premises all the hay and straw produced : he is also restrained from exceeding two white crops to a fallow, and generally from taking two white crops in succession, with the exception of the eastern part of the county, where the rotation allowed is, two white crops and a green one ; but in other parts there must be a green one between the two white crops.

A sum is usually specified, proportioned to the size of the farm, which is to be annually expended in lime or some other kind of manure ; and only a given quantity of arable land is allowed to each farm, a tenant being prohibited from breaking up any pasture, or growing more than a certain quantity of wheat every year ; he is bound in this respect to leave the same number of acres when he quits, that he found when he entered into possession, by which the incomer has the same advantage with regard to straw that the outgoer received when he was in a similar situation.

If an outgoer cannot make an agreement with his suc-

cessor to take his wheat crop at harvest time by valuation, the former cuts it himself, and is obliged to thresh and use the straw upon the premises : he in general, however, pays no rent after Lady-day, either when disposing of it, or retaining it for his own use ; but to this there are exceptions, as in some cases rent is paid for the standing corn until Michaelmas ; and in the southern part of the county, the outgoer leaving at Lady-day cannot in many places sow any wheat the preceding Michaelmas, without permission from the intended incomer, which for the last six months of the term renders a farm useless to its actual occupier, unless for sheep feed ; and thus frequently a farm in this quarter is left without any wheat upon it, as the outgoer must either allow his destined successor to enter upon the land at Michaelmas, and share the land that is intended to be sown with wheat, or run the risk of not being paid for the crop which he leaves on the ground, the custom of that part of the county not being obligatory upon the incomer to take it ; and under this very absurd custom, if the outgoer sows wheat, he cannot enter after Lady-day to harvest the crop himself, without the express permission of the tenant then in possession.

The incomer has the privilege of sowing the spring corn, but he cannot enter upon the land before Lady-day to prepare for it, without leave from the outgoer, at which period most of the spring corn should be in the ground, without having any preparation to make for it ; but he is not obliged, by the custom of the county, to pay for any other workmanship, crop, or advantage, which he may find upon the farm, than the value of seed and labour for the young clover, or other grass seeds, as the outgoer cannot plough either the land which is intended for fallow, or for the spring crop, without

being engaged to do so by his successor; nor can he make any demand for hay or straw, being obliged to feed all upon the premises, and to leave the dung upon the soil, without receiving any remuneration whatever.

MODE OF FARMING, IMPLEMENTS, &c.

The condition of the land in this county will bear no comparison with that in the adjoining one of Wiltshire; and, generally speaking, there is a great want of a proper system of management.

The soil cannot be spoken of as being injured by excessive cropping, only by scarcely ever being properly worked; and thus it becomes foul, and is kept in a very indifferent state.

The observation which is frequently and justly made, that the less any person has to perform, the better it ought to be done, is here far from being, at all times, realized: it is, indeed, remarkable, that in all the counties chiefly devoted to pasture, the arable land is very indifferently managed, in comparison with the mode of working it in other districts that have a larger proportion of ground in tillage; this can only be accounted for, in general, upon the supposition that they make sufficient from the one, to be able to afford to neglect the other.

In some parts of the county the land is ploughed in the same extraordinary and ill-judged manner that it is in some districts of Cambridgeshire, and the effect of it is shewn precisely in the same way in the appearance of the wheat.

Beans are grown in great quantities in the southern and interior parts of Somersetshire: the rotation is—first, fallow; second, wheat; third, beans or seeds; fourth, oats: in the eastern quarter it generally is—first, fallow;

second, wheat; third, oats or barley; fourth, seeds: turnips are not cultivated to any extent in any part of the county.

Lime is frequently used upon the arable land; and this, with the exception of the dung made in the farm-yard, is the only manure that is, in general, laid upon the ground.

The drill is very seldom used, the wheat being generally sown by hand, and occasionally ploughed in, but it is most frequently harrowed in; the beans are commonly planted by the dibble; threshing machines are rarely met with in Somersetshire.

Great improvements might be made in various parts of the county, if the land was properly drained; but very little of this work is done, although the landlords are most commonly at the expense of cutting the drains, the tenant merely paying for filling them in.

The outbuildings are chiefly constructed of stone, and thatched: the premises having been, at the commencement of a lease, put into good repair, a tenant is bound to keep them in the same state; the landlord, however, finding all the materials.

SUFFOLK.

THE air in this county is extremely pleasant and salubrious, even in the lowest parts near the sea, where the strong easterly breezes dispel the fogs, which would otherwise be very unwholesome.

The soil greatly varies, but it is, in general, considered to be not inferior to any in the United Kingdom.

The eastern parts of the county bordering on the sea are sandy, and full of heaths, which feed vast flocks of sheep; in the cultivated districts rye and peas are sown to a considerable extent, and are highly productive; the middle parts are very much inclosed, and the farms, in general, small, but they produce all the necessaries of life, with the addition of hops, in great abundance.

PRACTICE OF TENANCY.

The farms are usually let on leases for seven or fourteen years; the time for entering upon them is generally old Michaelmas-day.

The rents are paid annually; the poor-rates are chiefly collected quarterly; the highway-tax is half worked out and half paid by composition; the tithes are most frequently also paid by composition.

CUSTOMS BETWEEN LANDLORD AND TENANT, AND THE INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANT.

A tenant is usually restrained from exceeding three crops of corn to a fallow; but he is not restricted other-

wise with reference to any particular mode of cropping the land, or as to the quantity of arable land to be sown with wheat; he is prohibited, however, from disposing of or removing either hay or straw from the premises. An outgoing tenant sows the wheat crop, but never harvests it, it being customary for the incomer to take the crops upon the ground.

The outgoer keeps an account of all ploughings, harrowings, dung-carting, and other work relative to the cultivation of the land, which he has performed upon his wheat or turnip fallows during the last twelve months; for the whole of which he is paid by the incomer, and likewise the value of seed and labour upon each wheat or turnip crop; and for the seeds upon the ground he also receives the value of seed and labour, and that of all dung, either in the yards, or carried out upon the land for the crops then in the ground.

The incomer is obliged, by the custom of the county, to take all the crops upon the ground, and to pay for the work upon them; and if he cannot be upon the spot himself to see it done, he must trust to the reports of others: he is likewise compelled to pay for all the dung, but he has the straw and chaff of his predecessor's last crop allowed him for threshing the corn and carrying it to market; he is obliged, however, to take all the hay left on the premises, which is valued to him by two individuals, in the same manner as the other articles, at a feeding price: if he is dissatisfied with the hay either as to quantity or value, it is trussed, and he has it then at the market price; but nine times out of ten valuations are attended with great disadvantages, as far as relates to the benefit of an incoming tenant.

MODE OF FARMING, IMPLEMENTS, &c.

Not near the quantity of turnips are sown here that there are in Norfolk ; the parts where they are most extensively grown in Suffolk are chiefly those bordering upon Cambridgeshire.

Many districts in this county are particularly adapted for the growth of beans, which form one of the greatest articles of produce in Suffolk.

The rotation in the turnip land is—first, turnips ; second, barley ; third, seeds ; fourth, wheat : on the heavy land—first, fallow ; second, wheat ; third, seeds or beans ; fourth, wheat : when the third is seeds, beans or oats come in fifth.

Suffolk is celebrated for a good and useful breed of horses, and no doubt they are so when employed in regular farming work, but their constitutions are not calculated to endure the fatigue or the hardships to which many other horses of a different breed are constantly subjected.

The greater part of the sheep kept in this county are of the South Down breed : the cattle peculiar to it are invariably polled ; they are considered profitable in the dairy.

The wheat is, for the most part, planted by the dibble, particularly on clover lays, where the ground is of rather a close nature ; but where the land will admit of it, the drill is generally used for turnips, and all kinds of grain. The Suffolk ploughs have commonly the cast-iron shares, but have only one handle attached to them. Neither the implements nor the husbandry are equal to those of Norfolk.

Threshing machines are but little used. The interior of the county contains a considerable proportion of strong heavy land, which is frequently subjected to the operation of draining; the materials chiefly employed are bushes and straw, which are provided by the tenant, who also pays the rest of the expense.

The outbuildings are generally thatched, and most of them sided with lath and clay plaster, but some are weatherboarded: for the renovation of the thatch, the tenant finds straw, and the landlord workmanship; for other repairs the latter provides materials, and the former converts them to the intended purpose.

SURREY.

THIS county is remarkable for a great abundance of fuller's-earth, which, being extremely useful to the woollen manufacturers, has become the object of an extensive trade, the principal one, indeed, in Surrey, with the exception of agriculture.

The air and soil of the county vary of course in the shades and degrees that may be expected, where there is a diversity of hills, vallies and woods ; but the air is in general considered mild and salubrious, which induces many of the wealthy citizens of London to fix in it their country residences.

Surrey is very fertile, producing abundant crops of grain and hay, together with great quantities of wood ; and having so immediate a communication with the metropolis, in which a part of it is as it were merged, it derives a number of advantages with regard to the consumption of different articles of produce, which do not attach to other districts.

The southern part, or the weald of Surrey, lies, generally speaking, wet and flat ; but the north is directly the reverse, that district containing many hills which command most extensive views, well worthy the notice of a traveller, especially the prospect from Box Hill, so called from the great number of box trees constantly growing upon it, which are here to be found in greater perfection than in any other part of England.

From this spot there is a very extensive view over parts of Sussex and Kent, as well as of Surrey. The descent

appears almost perpendicular to the valley below, where the cultivated fields, the river Mole winding along the bottom of the hill, and the great number of villas every where scattered, afford a *coup d'œil* of the most picturesque and romantic character. From Leith Hill the prospect is more extensive than from any of the others, and it far surpasses them in rural charms and magnificence; beneath it lie open to view all the wealds of Surrey and Sussex, and a part of those of Kent, the whole admirably diversified by woods, pastures, and cultivated land, and adorned in every quarter by valuable timber.

This delightful vale is about thirty miles in breadth and sixty in length; it is terminated to the south by the majestic range of the southern hills and the sea; and the venerable aspect of these hills, whose heads, at so great a distance, seem capped in clouds, and the beautiful appearance of the vale in the intervening space, present, as it were, a competition for superiority of magnificence.

Surrey is bounded on the north from west to east by the river Thames; the Wey, which rises near Alton in Hants, enters this county to the west of Godalming, at which place it becomes navigable, and is of great service to the inhabitants, as it communicates with the Thames, and opens an intercourse with all the towns on the banks of that river, so rich in commercial and poetic fame.

The inhabitants of Surrey differ in their manners like those of other counties, according to their respective situations; those in the interior parts, devoting themselves chiefly to husbandry, are plain and industrious, whilst those who live near London may be considered as partaking of the virtues as well as vices of the metropolis, with which they have a constant intercourse.

PRACTICE OF TENANCY.

The most usual period of the year for entering upon a farm in Surrey, is Michaelmas; leases are commonly granted for seven, fourteen, or twenty-one years; at Michaelmas the incoming tenant takes possession of the whole of the land, but the outgoer has the privilege of retaining the barns, yards and outbuildings, with part of the house until May-day, for the purpose of threshing his last crop, and expending the hay and straw.

The rents are in most places paid annually; the poor-rates quarterly; the highway-tax is paid partly by composition, and in part outset by labour; the tithes are in general commuted.

CUSTOMS BETWEEN LANDLORD AND TENANT, AND THE
INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANT.

A tenant is in general restricted from removing either hay or straw, being bound to expend both upon the premises: he is also prohibited from taking more than two white crops to a fallow; but it is not usual to impose any restriction with regard to the quantity of wheat to be sown, or as to a succession of two white crops.

An incoming tenant in this county, as in all others where a similar practice of entry is acted upon, has to commence business by making a very heavy outlay, he having to take articles of various descriptions at a valuation.

He has not the privilege of making his own fallows for his turnips or Michaelmas crops, but pays the outgoer, according to valuation, for all the labour bestowed upon them; likewise for half that applied to the fallows during the preceding year; also for all manure on the premises,

dressings used for turnip or Michaelmas crops ; half those used for the same purpose the year before, for foldings and half foldings in the same way as the dressings ; and for seeds, lays, and underwood. The hay and straw are likewise taken by the incomer at a feeding-off price ; but if the outgoer expends the hay and straw upon the premises, the dung thence arising is valued at May-day, and in this way there is a second valuation. In addition to paying for the above-mentioned articles, and for all workmanship on the fallows, the incomer is subject to the payment of rent and taxes for twelve months on the clear fallows previous to his taking possession, a practice which in every way deprives him of his capital at the outset, though it tends much to the benefit of the outgoer.

An outgoer, up to the time of his leaving the farm, has the privilege of ploughing and preparing the seasons for his successor's first Michaelmas crop, for which, as already intimated, he demands payment, and likewise for the full value of all the manure, with the expense of carting attending it, laid out for that crop, and half that of the workmanship and manure expended on the last crop, which he takes himself ; and provided he sows any wheat or Michaelmas crop previous to his giving up possession, which he has the option of doing until Michaelmas, he in like manner claims the full value of seed and labour.

These various demands certainly ought not to be imposed upon an incoming tenant ; the outgoer having been remunerated by a regular course of crops for the expense of a fallow and dressing, the privilege of preparing the land which is left for fallow, or for the incomer's first crop, at the end of a term, should be at the option of the tenant about to take possession, as he can perform the work much more to his own advantage and satisfaction,

than by paying for it when done by the outgoer, especially as such a payment, with the additional outlay for seeds, lays, underwood, hay, straw and manure, deprives him of his capital, and prevents him from properly stocking or cultivating his land.

MODE OF FARMING, IMPLEMENTS, &c.

The farms in the weald of Surrey are small, and many of them much inclosed, but in the northern part of the county they become more extensive, particularly on the hills, which contain an abundance of chalk within, and have an extremely flinty surface.

The same want of improvement is visible in this county as in Sussex, arising from precisely the same cause: but through the advantages derived by the inhabitants from the proximity to, and immediate trade carried on with the metropolis, their situation is somewhat better, as they not only obtain higher prices, and have a more ready market for the sale of their produce, but from their being better supplied, as it were, with home-markets, there is a great saving in the annual expenditure, which is otherwise unavoidably incurred; they possess, besides, many advantages with reference to the obtaining of manure, which do not fall to the lot of others, situated at a greater distance from the capital.

Considerable numbers of sheep are kept in the northern part of the county, for the purpose of manuring and improving the land; but not near so much is done with them here in that respect, as there is in some counties, where the soil is of a similar character with reference to situation and quality.

The Wiltshire system has been often strongly recommended, as combining a plan most beneficial to pursue;

and one of its great excellencies is, that its advantages are not confined to a few particular spots, it being proved to be beneficial to turnip husbandry in general, though more so, perhaps, in some situations than in others.

The farmers in Surrey entertain an idea amongst themselves that their agricultural management is superior to that in Sussex, but it is destitute of foundation; the notion is chiefly confined to those inhabitants who, being a little enlightened by their connexion with the metropolis, raise themselves in their own estimation, and imagine their own judgment to be superior to that of others. This sort of feeling is found by a traveller to exist in a greater degree, the nearer he approaches to London; but it is, nevertheless, true, that, notwithstanding the multiplicity of advantages possessed in this quarter, many of the farmers are neither more successful, nor better conductors of business, than are to be found in several other districts.

Sussex has been, for many years, pointed out as a neglected county; but let the wealds of Sussex and Surrey be compared, or the extremities of the two counties, the south of the latter, and the north of the former, and no neglect will be found in the one which is not also observable in the other, whilst, considering the advantages attached to Surrey, a difference might naturally be expected: the fact is, however, that the cultivation of the land in both counties is equally deprived of proper support, and from precisely the same cause.

Turnips are grown to a considerable extent in some parts of Surrey, but tares are more generally cultivated than any other species of green crop; and from these, as well as from the crops of clover, the farmers within a certain distance of the metropolis annually realize con-

siderable sums of money, by selling them as they stand, at from 12*l.* to 18*l.* per acre, to brewers and others who want them for their horses; towards the interior of the county, great quantities of tares are sown for the purposes of sheep feed.

Although a tare crop is generally found very valuable, and it can be used in many different ways, yet the knowledge of its value is in a great degree confined to certain districts. In the north of England, tares are scarcely ever grown; in the west, rarely; whilst in the south they are looked to with the greatest attention.

The rotation in the weald of Surrey is—first, fallow; second, wheat; third, seeds; fourth, oats; fifth, tares, which are fed off, and the land brought in again for wheat: but very frequently it is—third, oats; fourth, seeds; fifth, beans: in the northern part of the county, the rotation is—first, turnips; second, barley; third, seeds; fourth, wheat; fifth, tares, rye or other green crop.

A great quantity of lime is used, which is generally laid upon the land in the autumn for a wheat crop, and thus, as before observed, it loses great part of its strength, and becomes of very little service to the soil; notwithstanding this, however, it, with the addition of the produce from the farm-yard, supplies the place of the principal manure.

The application of salt, as a manure, is becoming very general, as well as of saltpetre: the latter, however, requires to be very carefully used, but it is a most excellent dressing. As far as the distance from the metropolis will allow, the farmers are well accommodated with the best manure at a low rate; they frequently use considerable quantities of soap ashes, which they are enabled

to obtain merely by taking the trouble of carting them away.

The turn-wrist plough is used in many quarters, but the round plough may be considered as more generally employed than any other ; the latter is most commonly drawn by three horses driven in length, the double system of ploughing being but partially adopted.

The corn is principally sown and threshed by hand, the drill or threshing machine being but rarely employed : the land-press would here be of the greatest benefit, especially on some of the sandy hills.

The outbuildings are chiefly constructed in a similar manner to those in Sussex, thatched and weather-boarded ; a tenant, in general, covenants to leave them in tenantable repair : for the reparations wanting during and at the end of the term, the landlord finds materials, but which are converted to their intended purpose at the expense of the tenant.

STAFFORDSHIRE.

THE extensive manufactures for which this county is famed, and the various metals and minerals which it contains, form the chief articles of its produce.

Coals, iron, and limestone are to be found in all quarters; and there is, besides, a great abundance of different kinds of ore and spar.

Clay of every description is obtained in this county, forming the principal material used in the potteries: in different parts of it, also, freestone of a very good quality is worked in very extensive quarries.

The climate of this county is rather moist and damp; the soil varies according to situation, but a strong, stiff, clayey ground is more common than any other: there are different kinds of loam tolerably productive, with respect to turnips and barley, which are chiefly grown towards the south, but not to any considerable extent.

The mines and manufactures principally attract the attention and industry of the inhabitants, but a slight portion of either being applied to agriculture. Staffordshire, however, is more worthy of remark in that branch, than some other counties which have not the same resources of employment, or even a moiety of them, for their population.

There is a vast extent of forest land in this county, which was formerly stocked with the most valuable timber, and with unusual-sized hollies, but it is now partly inclosed, and in a state of cultivation.

PRACTICE OF TENANCY.

The time for entering upon farms is usually at Lady-day ; the tenants, in general, hold at will.

The rents are paid half-yearly : the poor-rates, which are heavy, are generally collected monthly : the highway-tax is commonly paid by a rate of 6d. in the pound : in all the lately inclosed districts the land is exonerated from tithes, as in other quarters, by virtue of allotments ; where that is not the case, they are chiefly paid by composition.

CUSTOMS BETWEEN LANDLORD AND TENANT, AND THE INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANT.

A tenant is restrained from carrying away either hay or straw from the premises ; but with reference to cropping, ploughing, or breaking up pasture land, there is no general restriction ; and pasture land is frequently broken up after it has been down twenty years, and upwards, and become good, useful land.

The outgoing tenant is usually paid for all the dung he leaves upon the farm, and for all clear fallows, but is allowed nothing for a bastard fallow, either after seeds fed off, or any other crop, nor even after turnips fed off : the land must lie in fallow the whole of the summer, to give the outgoer any claim, in this respect, upon his successor. A tenant, after receiving or giving notice to quit, which must be six months previous to the giving up possession, is not, according to the custom of the county, paid for any work he may do subsequent to the notice, unless authorised to do it by his successor.

He is not restricted as to the quantity of wheat sown, and for all that he sows previous to the notice, if fallowed

for he receives two-thirds of the crop,—if a brush crop, only one half: for all he sows after the notice, which is given at Michaelmas, he is only paid the value of the seed and labour.

The incomer cannot enter to plough for his spring crop before Lady-day, without permission from the tenant in possession: the former may thus be thrown very backward in his spring season. The incomer is subject, on entry, to pay for seed and labour for the seeds on the ground, the value of the dung, and a proportion of expense for the clear fallows made for the wheat or turnip crops: in some places, the outgoer is not paid for straw; but the general custom is, for him to be paid both for the dung and straw left upon the farm.

MODE OF FARMING, IMPLEMENTS, &c.

The forest ground in this county is of entirely a different nature to the generality of that description of land, and cannot be so profitably cultivated.

The soil is usually stiff, and many parts are extremely wet and cold; scarcely any turnips can be grown upon it, but it bears good crops of corn.

The soil of Staffordshire, in general, is particularly calculated for the growth of beans, vast quantities of which are produced from it; beans and wheat being the principal kinds of grain grown in the county.

The rotation on the clay land is—first, fallow; second, wheat; third, beans; fourth, oats; fifth, seeds: on the lighter soils—first, turnips; second, barley; third, wheat; fourth, seeds; fifth, oats.

There is some excellent pasture land in many parts: irrigation is frequently practised on the meadows: the mode of farming is of rather a middling description; but

by means of the practice of draining, a far greater improvement is made on the land than in the adjoining county of Derby: for all the draining a tenant is disposed to perform, the landlord is generally willing to supply the materials, chiefly consisting of draining tiles.

The double-furrow plough is very commonly used in this county, with the horses driven in length, the same as in Derbyshire; the drill or the threshing machine are scarcely ever employed.

The outbuildings are, for the greater part, constructed of brick, and many of them thatched; but thatch is not so generally used for roofing as tiles: the repairs are usually made at the expense of the tenant.

SUSSEX.

THE manners and customs of the inhabitants of Sussex differ but little from those of their neighbours; but it has been generally complained that husbandry, though forming the chief employment of the people, and so highly useful to all ranks of society, has not met with that encouragement in this county which it has in other parts of the island, in consequence of the people here being too much attached to ancient customs, and too little to modern improvements: this complaint, however, may be equally applied to many parts of the adjoining counties of Kent and Surrey.

The inhabitants, generally speaking, enjoy a good state of health, although the air materially varies in different situations: in the northern districts, where the country is more flat than otherwise, dense fogs are very frequent, but in the interior the air is pure and serene; on the sea-coast, and in its immediate neighbourhood, strangers are frequently afflicted with agues, whilst those who constantly reside upon the spot are seldom subject to that disorder.

The soil varies extremely in the different quarters of the county, comprising, as it does, some of the very best and worst descriptions of land. In the north a great extent of ground is occupied by St. Leonard's Forest, which is, in some places, partially cultivated, but its soil being of a very poor nature, its natural productions, such as heath, birch, and rabbits, have been, in general, more (or at least as much) relied upon than any return it was

possible to derive from such land, by means of an expenditure devoted to agricultural operations.

The land also, for some distance round the forest, is very indifferent, it generally consisting of a mixture of clay and gravel; the eastern and interior districts are principally of a clayey nature, but the soil is of a much better quality, and is here and there interspersed with sandy spots; the west and southern parts of the county are, in this respect, very superior, the one containing as fine turnip land, and the other as rich grazing land, as any in the United Kingdom—the latter extends with the sea-coast to the eastern and western extremities of the county.

The South Downs, which in various parts have of late years been rapidly brought into a state of cultivation, produce an abundance of corn, and feed immense flocks of sheep; but, unfortunately, the value of the flocks, through the depression of the wool-trade, has been so greatly reduced as to occasion a serious loss to the farmers, who are thus, from necessity, obliged to seek other means of making up the deficiency, and this they endeavour to do by extending the cultivation of the land.

Sussex, it is well known, has been always celebrated for its breed of sheep, (the South Downs,) which is considered superior to any in England in point of flavour, an advantage they are believed to obtain, like the mountain sheep, from the herbage upon which they feed. Should, however, the same necessity continue during several years to come, for enlarging the proportion of the down-land subjected to cultivation, that has existed for some years past, this valuable breed of sheep must be inevitably lost; and it is very doubtful, at least according to present prices, whether the produce of the soil will

ever remunerate the farmer for the expenses of cultivation in any proportion equivalent to what would be realized by rearing these useful animals, were the wool sufficiently protected. The loss thus arising, in the first instance, to the farmer, will ultimately entail a much greater loss upon the country generally, not only from the very deficient supply of good and nutritious mutton, but from having to depend upon foreign importation for the short wool which is so essential to many branches of manufacture.

In addition to the sheep, this county is likewise noted for its breed of cattle, which are not surpassed, in point of beauty, by any in the United Kingdom. Many of the oxen arrive at a great weight; the breed very much resembles that of Herefordshire as to the deficiency in the dairy, with regard to the cows, whilst the oxen are equally valuable either for fattening or for work; they are remarkable for affording the butcher more roasting beef than any other kind of beasts, as they invariably fatten and become mellow on the back much sooner than on any other point.

The only manufacture of any note carried on in Sussex is that of gunpowder; the people not employed in that, either depend upon husbandry or fishing, according to the situation of the places in which they reside.

PRACTICE OF TENANCY.

The most usual time for entering upon a farm in this county is Michaelmas, when possession is taken of the whole of the land; but the outgoer has the option of retaining part of the house, with the occupation of the yards and outbuildings, until May-day, for the purpose of threshing his corn, and using his straw.

It is a common practice for the incomer to pay for

threshing this last crop, and to carry the corn to market, in return for which he has the straw and dung made from it for his own use; but where an outgoer feeds his last crop upon the premises until May-day, (which he has the option of doing,) he pays for the threshing of the corn himself, and is paid for the dung arising therefrom, according to valuation, by the incomer.

A large proportion of the land in Sussex is now occupied by tenants at will; the rents are generally received once a year; the poor-rates are collected quarterly; the highway-tax has, in many places, of late years, been paid by composition, and the work performed for hire, which has been the means of greatly improving the roads; but in some of the parishes in the northern part of the county the tax imposed upon the farmers, merely for the benefit of a few individuals, has been nearly, if not entirely, the ruin of them; the tithes are chiefly commuted.

CUSTOMS BETWEEN LANDLORD AND TENANT, AND THE
INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANT.

The restrictions upon a tenant in Sussex are not only very insufficient in themselves, but even, such as they are, they are seldom or ever enforced. The reason why so little attention is paid to the mode of farming pursued by the tenants is, that, from the heavy entry with which a farmer is compelled to commence business, he is deprived of his capital, and is, therefore, obliged to do as he can, not as he wishes, which is the case with the greater part of the tenantry in the weald.

In many places a tenant is prohibited from removing either hay or straw, but, generally speaking, he is allowed to sell hay, provided he draws a load of dung back upon

slighted, and thus the extra work which an incomer is obliged to pay for is not of the least benefit to him.

A practical appraiser can doubtless set a just and proper value upon things he sees before his eyes; but when he has to value a field of wheat, together with the manure laid out upon it, and every ploughing, harrowing, or rolling it has undergone, how is it possible for any man to have, in this respect, any other guide to value than what he is told? A man may, it is true, be placed on a farm by the incomer, when the outgoer will permit it, in order to see that the work is really and properly done; but it more frequently happens than otherwise, that distance, or some other inconvenience, prevents an incomer from knowing, when he takes a farm, what has been done, except through what he is told by the outgoer, or some of his servants. To give, however, this practice of entry every favorable allowance, let it be supposed that the shortness of the distance will allow the incomer to see that the fallows, and the other work which he has to take or pay for, have been properly done, and that thus no demand is made upon him except for what has been actually performed, and what, therefore, will be for his benefit,—can there be a doubt that he could have had the work done at a cheaper rate, and with greater advantage to himself, than by paying for it in this way? Is it likely, too, that he should be aware what quantity of manure had been carried out upon the land the year before for all the crops?—but for which manure and expense of carting, he has to pay half the value, though the labour may date its commencement two years before the change of tenants!

which he has the privilege of retaining, for the purpose of turning his cattle into, till May-day: from the wheat crop he receives two thirds of the produce if the wheat was fallowed for; but if sown after potatoes, beans, or any other crop, only one half, excepting after a white crop, which does not very often happen when a tenant quits a farm, as he receives nothing from that rotation. The incoming tenant has the benefit of all the manure, and of the seeds upon the ground; but he is bound to leave, at the expiration of his term, the same quantity of seeds that he found at its commencement. In consequence of paying rent and taxes from the time of his entering upon the farm, he receives his thirds or other portions of the wheat crop, but the outgoing tenant pays all the expense of its cutting.

MODE OF FARMING, IMPLEMENTS, &c.

Cultivation is but very indifferently carried on in this county, nor can it be otherwise whilst the present system is continued.

The custom of producing only two white crops before the land is seeded with clover, or other artificial grass, is evidently the best; but the best is far from being good, as no system or regular rotation belongs to either of them. The rotation generally is—first, potatoes; second, wheat; third, oats; fourth, barley fallowed; fifth, seeds: or first, oats; second, potatoes; third, wheat; fourth, barley; fifth, seeds; but where the land is held under the custom of having only a certain proportion of it in tillage, hundreds of acres lie entirely idle, being neither what can be properly called pasture, nor of any profit to a farmer, the most they produce being thistles and couch grass.

The latter system is acted upon under the idea of easing the land, but it clearly has not the desired effect, as one part is entirely, by bad management, run out of condition, while the other is eased; nor can such a mode produce more feed than the having the whole of the land in cultivation and in regular rotation, as there might be the same quantity to feed and the same proportion to mow, by means of breaking up the seeds regularly every one or two years, as required, and laying down the same quantity.

Clover or other artificial grasses will produce more feed from one to three years old, than from three to six; and, in point of fact, if the plant is not encouraged by manure, and fed by sheep after two or three years, it soon becomes little else than a bed of rubbish, which is precisely the case in this county: the only use it can then be turned to, is for keeping cows and horses during the summer; but in the winter it will neither carry sheep nor any kind of cattle, and lies entirely waste. If land is to be brought into pasture, it should be laid down as such, and every attention given to it; but if it is broken up when another part of the farm is exhausted by bad management, and only shares the same fate, it would undoubtedly be much better and more profitable to break the seeds up regularly every two or three years, than to let them remain for ten or twelve; and that wretched appearance would then be got rid of, which is occasioned by following a useless plan of laying down ground as profitable pasture, without rendering it any assistance.

One good plan is acted upon in this county, which would be desirable on all cold lands, where couch and water grasses generally flourish. A practice is followed of ploughing the wheat stubbles which are intended for

bats early in the winter, but only about half depth; the ridge is slit, half being thrown to the right, and the other to the left; but room is always taken sufficient to prevent the first furrow that is ploughed from being turned into the watercourse, and thus interrupting the drainage of the land: the first furrow, therefore, ploughed lies upon the space of a furrow of whole ground at the edge of the watercourse, which prevents the growth of any grass from either; and the land remaining in this state all the winter, becomes close by seed time, besides the probability that there is of its being more deeply penetrated by the frost. In the spring the land is ploughed at its usual full depth, and it comes up remarkably mellow; having been turned from the commencement of the winter, every thing likely to impede the plough has entirely disappeared, and the soil is clean. If this plan were adopted in some counties that are subject to water grass, either upon clover lays, bean stubbles, or any other land intended for a spring crop, it would be found to pay at a double rate to that of turning the horses out on the same ground, and keeping them in idleness during the winter, which many farmers are in the habit of doing.

Draining is in some parts of the county very well attended to, the landlord generally bearing a share of the expense, either by finding tiles or other materials for the purpose, or paying for half of the workmanship.

Scarcely any turnips are grown in Lancashire, and but very few sheep are kept. The manufacturing towns are chiefly supplied with meat from Ireland and Yorkshire.

The corn is sown by hand, and is all threshed by the flail: the plough most commonly used is the small Scots plough: the carting is done by large two-horse carts, but the Westmorland farmers clear a field much sooner

with small single-horse carts, than the people here do with the large ones.

The outbuildings are very good ; in the southern part of the county they are chiefly built with brick and covered with stone slate ; in the north they are generally constructed of stone and the Westmorland slate.

LEICESTERSHIRE.

AGRICULTURE is the principal business carried on in this county ; but the manufactures, chiefly that of stockings, have, of late years, greatly increased, and considerable advantage is derived from them.

The north-west and eastern districts, consisting principally of hills, which contain an abundance of coal and slate, and feed great numbers of sheep, are not so fertile as other parts ; but the county, taken in general, is as fruitful as most in the United Kingdom. In some districts, which are principally devoted to the grazing of sheep and cattle, the soil is mostly a rich red clay, which is particularly favorable for the growth of beans and wheat, as well as for pasture ; but the land in general consists of a rich loam, which produces most abundantly every kind of grain.

This county is remarkable for its breed of sheep, both in point of their weight, and of the quantity of wool that is taken from them, and they are dispersed more widely than any other throughout the kingdom : it is likewise celebrated for a most excellent breed of horses, well-adapted both for the saddle and for draught, but more particularly for the latter purpose.

PRACTICE OF TENANCY.

The tenants most commonly hold at will: the farms are generally entered upon at Lady-day, but some few at Michaelmas. The rents are received half-yearly: the poor-rates, which are moderate, are collected as often as they are wanted: the highway-tax is paid half by composition, and is half worked out; some parts of the county are subject to the payment of tithes, but most of the land is exonerated, by means of allotments in lieu of them.

CUSTOMS BETWEEN LANDLORD AND TENANT, AND THE INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANT.

The tenants, in general, are restrained from selling either hay or straw, and also from breaking up any pasture land. They are likewise expected, in the cultivation of their land, to adopt the system of two crops and a fallow: in some places the tenant is bound to lay a certain quantity of lime every year upon his wheat seasons, but this is not a general custom.

An outgoing tenant is paid for all clear fallows, but they must be free the whole of the summer, both from a green crop used for feed, and from one that stands to ripen, otherwise he receives nothing; for all clear fallows he is generally allowed three ploughings per fallow.

For his wheat crop, if sown in a clear fallow, he receives the value of seed and labour, besides the number of ploughings allowed; but if sown in a bastard fallow, he only receives payment for the seed and labour: for the seeds in the ground, he is in like manner paid for seed and labour, but he is allowed nothing for a turnip fallow,

either fed off or pulled, it being considered that he has had the benefit of that crop: upon farms, however, entered upon at Michaelmas, an outgoing tenant is either allowed one year's rent for his turnip crop, or he has the option of feeding them till Lady-day, but he cannot pull them to feed on other land.

An incoming tenant is only bound, by the customs of the county, to pay for the seeds, wheat, and clear fallows, by valuation, and likewise for any winter ploughing which his predecessor might have done, such as breaking up for a fallow, it being optional with the incomer either to plough for his spring crop himself, or to pay his predecessor for doing it for him; but he cannot enter to commence ploughing before Lady-day, without permission from the outgoer; and supposing the latter, from mere caprice, to refuse, the incomer is put to great inconvenience, as he may thereby be deprived of a spring crop: he cannot, in fact, by any possibility, get his seed put into the ground within any reasonable time, except by means of the assistance of his neighbours, who are subject to a similar custom.

Upon farms that are entirely devoted to grazing, it is customary in some places for the incoming tenant entering at Lady-day, to pay half the winter half-year's rent, as he receives, during the next summer, all the benefit of the land: the previous summer, however, might as well be set against the winter, as the succeeding one; and a tenant quitting a farm ought to be considered more able to pay half a year's rent, than one who has just entered into business, and who wants all his money for stocking the farm, without having yet derived from it any advantage.

MODE OF FARMING, IMPLEMENTS, &c.

The farms, which are in general small, are kept clean, and in good condition, but not in so high a state of cultivation as they are in some other parts of England. On the clay land, the rotation is—first, fallow; second, wheat; third, beans: on the loamy soil,—first, turnips; second, barley or oats; third, seeds; fourth, wheat.

Dung and lime are the principal articles of manure that are used; bone manure, rape dust, or any other artificial dressing, is very seldom tried.

The horses at plough are generally driven at length; the double-furrow ploughs are very commonly employed, which, with a good ploughman who has been used to them, turn lay ground as well as any other, but they require extra strength.

Wherever the practice prevails of driving the horses in length, these ploughs are of great advantage, particularly in moving the fallows. Three horses are generally, when driven in length, used to a common plough, for stirring the land, almost in all districts; and four are sufficient for a double plough when used for the same purpose, which is the principal part of the summer's work: thus, instead of one acre being ploughed with three horses, there are two ploughed with four, which, allowing that the double plough does the work of two others, makes a saving of two horses, one man, and a boy every day. That, however, is not the only advantage of the double plough, as, instead of working the land in wet weather, the horses may be employed in other labour, and be in good time afterwards for performing two days work in one: the advantage, indeed, must be at once seen, of employing this plough upon a farm, requiring as it does only

four horses to do the work; as, instead of using the four with a single plough, and getting once over the fallows, the double plough goes over them twice; and besides this, there is the opportunity of taking advantage of the weather. In clay land, the double ploughs have, no doubt, too heavy a draught to be used for breaking up, but for stirring, they answer a very good purpose; and if only one is employed upon a farm, it makes a material difference with regard to the work.

These ploughs are used in other counties much more generally than in this; the employment of them prevails mostly in Shropshire.

The land in Leicestershire is, in many parts, subjected to considerable drainage; some of the drains are laid in with the draining tiles, and some with slate chippings: the landlord generally pays half the expense.

The outbuildings are chiefly constructed of brick and tiles, or brick and slate; very few thatched buildings, especially of recent structure, are to be seen: being once put into good repair, the tenant is expected to keep them in the same state during the time he occupies the farm.

LINCOLNSHIRE.

From the description generally given of this county, it might be expected to find it low, wet, and fenny ; but the wolds are to the full as extensive as the marshy and fenny lands, including both the ground which is inclosed, and that which is yet open.

The soil is, in general, extremely rich, but there are four or five distinct characters of it, all of which are very productive.

There are, the marsh, the middle marsh, the fen, the wold, and the moor.

The marsh land is that which borders upon the sea, and is only preserved from the frequent inundations of the tide by vast banks, which have been thrown up on the sea-coast, forming between each bank a wide and deep channel, that prevents the water from flowing upon the land ; whilst tunnels are laid in each embankment, for the purpose of conveying the water from one channel to another, so that the channel nearest the coast, when the tide will allow, empties itself into the sea.

The fens in Lincolnshire, by means of the effectual drainage they have undergone, are rendered perfectly sound ; the drains are kept clear and in good order, by means of regulations similar to those which are applied to the roads in most parts of England. Every proprietor or occupier of land in the fens pays a rate proportioned to the quantity of land which he holds, for clearing or repairing the drains ; this rate is collected by a surveyor,

who is appointed by the commissioners to see that the drains are kept in good order.

Almost every inclosure is divided by a drain, which empties itself into a larger one leading to the sea: in some parts of the fens, windmills are erected (formerly much more common than they are now), for the purpose of raising the water from the lowest parts, where it could not drain away of itself, into a trough, which empties into a drain leading to the coast.

The middle marsh is the land lying between the marsh and the wold; it is of rather a strong nature, being a mixture of clay and marl *; but it cannot be converted into bricks, as the marl, from its chalky tendency, bursts before the bricks are sufficiently burnt. The wold is the upland ground, containing a substratum of chalk, which is observed much nearer to the surface in some places than it is in others: generally, however, there is a good depth of soil; and some thousands of acres between Horncastle and Barton, which have not been inclosed more than thirty years, now produce as much corn, and are become, by improvement, as profitable a tract of land as any in the wold.

The moor is that which lies between the hills in the wold; it varies more in strata than any other land in the county, but produces as much corn per acre suitable to the soil, as any other part.

Gravel, sand, sand-stone, iron-stone, and blue-stone, are all to be found in this county.

PRACTICE OF TENANCY.

The general custom in Lincolnshire is, to let the farms on leases for seven or fourteen years; the time for enter-

* A kind of chalk.

ing, throughout the county, is Lady-day, with the exception of a few places, where it is May-day. Each of these periods may prove very injurious to the incomer, unless the outgoer is compelled by the landlord to sow the spring corn in proper time himself, or to allow his successor to enter upon the farm sufficiently early to do it: May-day is the worst of the two, as if pasture land is allowed to be stocked up to that time, it becomes of little value to the incomer during the remainder of the summer, especially in a dry season.

The rents are paid half-yearly: the poor-rates, which vary very much in different parts of the county, according to the situation or the plenty or scarcity of employment, are generally collected quarterly: the highway-tax, which is heavy, particularly in the wold, is partly paid by composition, and partly worked out, eight shillings per day being allowed for the work of two horses and a cart, with one man.

All the late inclosed land in Lincolnshire is exonerated from tithes, by means of allotments of land set apart for that purpose under the provisions of the respective acts of parliament; in other parts of the county, the general practice is to compound both for the great and small tithes.

CUSTOMS BETWEEN LANDLORD AND TENANT, AND THE INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANT.

The general custom is, to restrain a tenant from taking more than two white crops to a fallow, and also from carrying away either hay or straw from the premises: the former restriction, however, does not apply to the fen land, where the mode of farming is quite different to that in the wold; the kind of grain suitable to the one, being quite the reverse with regard to the other.

An outgoing tenant has the privilege of sowing the

spring corn until Lady-day, and of taking an offgoing crop, both of the wheat and other corn that he has upon the ground at the time of his quitting the farm, but is bound to thresh it on the premises: the most general custom, however, is, for the outgoer to be paid for the crops the value of seed and labour, also in the same way for clover and other grass seeds, and likewise for the manure, and the carting of it, laid out for the crop. The valuation of the crops does not take place before harvest, and the price of the corn is set according to the average of three market-days, taken separately once a month, between harvest-time and the ensuing Lady-day: this prevents the business from being closed for nine or twelve months, but it is so managed that it is impossible for any one to value a crop of wheat correctly much before harvest, respecting the yield or quantity: and the value is set at the time stated, for the purpose of returning to an outgoing tenant the market-price for the quantity of corn his crop is supposed to produce, that being no more than he is entitled to expect, nor more than ought to be paid by one who purchases it. Sometimes the latter finds his own seed, and sows the spring crop; but when that is the case, he is obliged to make an allowance to his predecessor for giving him permission, it being optional with the outgoer, either to sow and take the crop himself, or to have it valued to his successor, provided the taking of it is agreed to by the latter.

MODE OF FARMING, IMPLEMENTS, &c.

The crops chiefly grown in the fens are oats and wheat; the cultivation of barley is upon a very limited scale.

The general rotation is—first, cole; second, oats; third, wheat; the latter, if not sown in that course, pro-

duces too much straw to have a profitable yield: when beans are grown, a crop which is not much resorted to in any part of the county, they are sown after the wheat, for the same reason that operates to induce the sowing of wheat after oats; but a second oat crop is more frequently than any other taken after the wheat.

Clover is very seldom sown in the fen land, the soil not being at all adapted to it; but in many parts of this district lucerne grows particularly kindly, and lasts for many years: it is, consequently, more generally cultivated than any other artificial grass.

The farms in the wolds are very extensive, and generally in the highest state of cultivation; all kinds of grain, particularly barley, are produced in the greatest abundance; and the good effects of the system followed in this part of the county, are demonstratively proved by the appearance of the latest inclosures.

The rotation in this district is—first, turnips; second, barley or oats; third, seeds; fourth, wheat.

Turnips are cultivated in the wolds in Lincolnshire upon a much more extensive scale than in any other part of England, and the quantity of artificial manure employed to produce them is double what is used in any other turnip county. The largest concern of this kind in Lincolnshire is at Withcall, near Louth, conducted by Mr. Dawson, whose annual laying of turnips is six hundred acres and upwards: for this he dresses entirely with the bone manure, which is thought preferable to any other, and is generally used throughout the county.

The last two summers have most effectually proved the goodness of this manure, they having been any thing but favourable to the growth of turnips: it has been remarked in other districts, as well as here, that the land

which received the assistance of this manure, produced good crops of turnips, compared with the crops in the same neighbourhood that were encouraged by any other kind of manure.

The advantages of the bone manure do not altogether consist in the aid it affords to the land, but greatly in the saving of expense, it not being necessary to draw other kinds of manure out upon the soil.

There is also a considerable saving of expense made by drilling the seed and manure at the same time: thus ten acres of land may be manured and sown in a day, with one drill and six horses; whilst, supposing the same quantity of ground to be dressed over with dung in the usual manner, the difference of expense, added to the value of the difference of time, would nearly pay for the bone manure. The quantity of the last-mentioned manure used per acre is from twenty to twenty-five bushels, at about 2s. per bushel. One of the greatest advantages attending the use of it is the saving of time it frequently makes, with reference to a crop of turnips, by putting the seed in the ground previous to a fall of rain, there being an opportunity of doing so, by means of using this manure, seven or eight days sooner than when, in the customary method, there is so much carting to perform.

A great quantity of chalk is laid out upon the land, which answers the purpose extremely well on the light soils, by greatly assisting to close them; and with the addition of the bone manure, which creates an action in the land, it is considered fit to produce any sort of grain. The chalk is laid out in the winter; at which time there are plenty of hands, and the expense is tolerably reasonable, though very frequently considerable sums of money are earned by the men employed in this kind of labour:

The practice is, for a certain number of acres to be let to be covered with chalk; the men dig it, carry it out, and spread it upon their ground, finding their own horses for that purpose, at the rate of 7*d.* or 8*d.* per square yard in the pit.

Another manure is used in the same way as the bone, namely, rape dust, which is to be had at a reasonable rate, and is considered very good for wheat: it is produced from the cake ground down; a ton weight, which costs from six to seven pounds, will dress nearly five acres of land. In the fens there is a practice of laying clay upon the land, which is procured by the drains being constantly cleaned out, and found at various distances from the surface all through the fens: great benefit is derived from it, and it is ascertained to be a sufficient dressing for eight or ten years.

The bone and rape manure being so much used for turnips, the dung that is made is generally carried out in the winter as a top dressing, both upon the green wheat and seeds: this system is not an expensive one, the work being got through in frost when nothing else can be done, and the land being by this means brought into the highest possible state of cultivation.

Many farmers in the fens are obliged to take in beasts to keep during the winter, for the purpose of treading in their straw, they having no pasture land in their occupation on which they can turn them in the spring: if they fail in obtaining beasts, which has been frequently the case during the last few years, owing to the mildness of the winters, and through the want of buildings, there is a great waste of fodder, and much straw is often burnt. But although there is such a profusion of straw throughout the county, the hay stacks are scarcely ever thatched;

they present, in consequence, a most slovenly appearance.

This county has always been remarkable for its breeds of cattle and sheep, and for rearing them of an enormous size and weight. The cattle are now much crossed with the Durham breed, by which an animal is produced much handsomer in all its points than the original; the sheep are also crossed with the Leicestershire breed, and it is now difficult to meet with true bred Lincolnshire sheep.

The sheep are not only remarkable for their size and weight, but also for the surprising quantity and length of their wool; but whenever they are removed from their native soil into any other county, they become much deteriorated, both in carcass and in the quality of their wool; this is doubtless occasioned by the difference of soil and climate. Amazing numbers of beasts and sheep are fed in the marshes during the summer, and the quantity of meat supplied from this county to the London markets is much greater than from any other*.

* Dimensions and weight of three sheep, belonging to Mr. Dawson of *Withcall*, as taken before the Rev. John Wray, Mr. Harland, Mr. Jones, and others, on the 21st of September, 1826:

WILLIAM, (Three-shear.)

	Feet.	Inches.
Length from the top of the head to the tail	4	7
Breadth across the chine	2	2½
Girth behind the shoulders	6	1
From the top of the shoulders to the breast-end	2	7
Breadth across the rump	1	10½
Round the rump from hip to hip	3	4
From the centre of the hip to the bottom of the flank	2	5
From the bosom-point to the rump	5	6
Length of the face from the crown to the nose	0	10½
Breadth from eye to eye	0	5½
Round the crag	1	10
Round the chop	1	0
From the knee to the fetlock	0	4

both for his turnip and wheat fallows. He has also the benefit of all the dung left upon the premises without being called upon for any payment.

MODE OF FARMING, IMPLEMENTS, &c.

Through the practice and customs at entry which are most usually acted upon in this county, a farm, when a change of tenants takes place, is in the same regular course as it was during the term of the lease, the only difference being that the work is performed by one person instead of another. The outgoer having an interest in the last crop, for his own sake does his duty ; and the incomer, of course, pursues a similar line of conduct. The latter, indeed, in Wiltshire has the means, and a fair chance afforded to him, of acting upon a good system, his interest being studied in preference to that of the outgoer, in a far higher degree than in some other counties in England, in which a great error is too frequently committed in too much regarding that of the latter, at the expense, of crippling the resources of the incomer, and preventing him from fairly working the land.

Those farmers who keep their land in good condition at the least expense, must, unquestionably, be adjudged the best ; and the condition of the land, in general, in Wiltshire, especially considering the situation of many parts of it, undoubtedly reflects very great credit upon its agriculturists.

With the exception of a few woollen rags, no artificial manure is used, every article of manure being otherwise what is produced immediately upon the spot. The land is remarkably clean, in good condition, and worked at as small an expense as the soil is in most counties.

The rotation on the turnip land generally is—first, turnips ; second, barley ; third seeds for two years, once cut for hay and once fed ; fourth, wheat, for which crop the land is usually ploughed over two or three times after Midsummer. On the heavy land, the rotation is—first, fallow ; second, wheat ; third, seeds ; fourth, beans ; fifth, wheat.

The mode in use here for manuring the land is most excellently adapted for the production of all kinds of grain as well as turnips. During the winter the muck is regularly taken from the yards, (precisely similar to cleaning out a stable,) and after it has been first spread upon the ground intended for turnips, the same system is pursued with regard to the wheat crop.

The muck is carried out in proportion as the flock folded upon it every night can tread it in ; when it goes out, it is nothing more than manure made from straw-fed beasts, and would, of itself, but very little nourish the land. After, however, the sheep have soiled and trod it into the earth, it soon rots and makes very good manure ; whilst by carrying out, every day or two, a sufficient quantity for a flock to lie upon, a considerable extent of ground is gone over, and that at a very trifling expense.

Irrigation is to be seen in its greatest perfection in Wiltshire ; and it is worth any one's while, who takes an interest in agricultural pursuits, to travel many miles for the purpose of duly appreciating the unquestionable advantages and value attached to a water-meadow, and which many thousands of acres in other quarters capable of being irrigated, from not being in the situation of upland meadow-ground, are entirely deprived of, merely from the circumstance of their proprietors, or occupiers,

or both, not being sufficiently aware of the vast benefits that may be derived from such a practice.

In the month of April, the water-meadows will carry grass mid-leg high, which is folded off by the sheep and lambs as naked as possible; and the water being turned over again, they will, in the course of six or eight weeks, produce two tons of hay per acre. Not only this,—but between haying-time and Michaelmas they will put beasts in good condition for stall-feeding, and frequently entirely prepare them for the butcher. It may be fairly stated, that one acre of water-meadow is more than equal to two of upland meadows.

A practice is adopted here of fallowing the land for the wheat which is sown after the two years old seeds are fed off, mucked, and folded, and which is chiefly sown by hand, that being likewise the case with all kinds of grain, excepting beans, the latter being dibbled about twelve inches apart each way, and three or four put into a hole. Sometimes the drill plough is used for them, and astonishing crops are thus produced after applying the muck and fold; by making it a rule always to hoe the beans twice, the land is kept very clean, and in good condition for wheat.

The seed machine is used for turnips, and likewise for clover, and all other artificial grasses; and it is generally considered as useful an implement as ever was introduced for the purpose of facilitating the labours of the husbandman. The double-wheeled ploughs are most generally used in the eastern part of the county, but in the west the single-wheel plough is more usual; many of which, however, though made in a similar manner to the common ones, are manufactured of cast-iron.

The threshing machines are generally in use throughout Wiltshire.

Stone not being very abundant, the outbuildings are chiefly thatched and weather-boarded: exclusive of the thatch, they are most frequently kept in repair at the expense of the landlord.

WORCESTERSHIRE.

THE chief manufactures in this county are those of cloth, stockings, gloves, and glass. A quantity of hops are also grown; and the cider and perry made here have a great reputation. In these articles the inhabitants carry on a considerable trade with Bristol and the inland districts.

The soil in Worcestershire is chiefly of a cold, clayey nature, excepting in the vales, which are very fertile, particularly the rich one of Evesham; but, generally speaking, the tract of land contained in the vales is very narrow.

There is but little waste land here; for though the hills are dreadfully poor in their soil, yet the greater part of them are in a state of cultivation. On the eastern side of the county the land is remarkably cold and poor, that quarter being also very inferior to the western part, both in climate and scenery.

Fruit is produced in great abundance, especially pears, which are seen in many places growing in the hedges: in the western part of the county orchards and hop-gardens form the principal objects of culture.

PRACTICE OF TENANCY.

Farms are usually entered upon at Lady-day, when possession is taken of the whole of the land, the house, and premises; the incoming tenant, however, has the privilege of going upon the arable land, for any requisite purpose, at Candlemas. Leases are generally granted, but only for short terms, such as three, five, or seven years: some few, however, for fourteen or twenty-one.

The rents are paid half-yearly; the poor-rates are collected seven or eight times in the course of the year, or oftener, if required; the highway-tax is paid half in money, and half by work performed on the roads. The great tithes are valued every year, and either taken in kind, or compounded for; the small tithes are always paid by composition.

CUSTOMS BETWEEN LANDLORD AND TENANT, AND THE INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANT.

It is customary for the tenant not to convey away, at any time, either hay or straw, from the premises; and when quitting, not to be paid either for the dung left in the yards, or laid out upon the land; nor is he allowed for any labour which he may have bestowed upon his fallows. During the last year of his occupation he is specifically restrained from sowing more than a certain quantity of his ground, generally one-third of the arable land, with wheat, in order to allow the incomer a proper quantity of land for his spring crop; but previous to that, there is, in general, no restriction either as to the quantity sown, or the rotation. The outgoer, if his successor will not agree to take the wheat crop at a

valuation, cuts and claims the whole of it himself, excepting the tithe, which the incomer gathers, and either compounds for, or delivers to the tithe-collector, but he is always looked to for it as being the responsible person in possession of the land. The outgoer, although he may take the crop of wheat, yet pays no rent after Lady-day, and he has barn and yard room allowed him for housing and threshing it, and for making use of the straw upon the premises.

The incomer pays for nothing on entering upon a farm, excepting for the young clover, or other grass seeds upon the ground, the value of seed and labour ; it being at his option either to perform the spring and winter ploughing himself, or to make an allowance for doing it to his predecessor : the incomer has also the benefit of all the dung left upon the premises, without any charge.

MODE OF FARMING, IMPLEMENTS, &c.

The mode of farming in this county is, generally speaking, in itself a very bad one, and is carelessly and negligently conducted.

There being no restriction as to rotation or manner of cropping, there is no regular system, but the plan usually adopted is to sow the land that requires the least work, and barley and oat stubbles are frequently dunged over after harvest, and sown with wheat ; a system of farming which certainly does not require much labour, but it is a most ruinous one to the land. No pains whatever are taken to relieve the ground from water, nor is a water furrow to be seen scarcely in any part of the county. The ploughing is, in general, very indifferently performed, and the appearance of the land is sufficient to

convince any one that neither master nor man have here any system to act upon.

Beans are very commonly grown throughout Worcestershire; turnip husbandry is upon a very limited scale, great part of the ground not being sufficiently sound either to feed them on, or to cart them from.

Very little draining is done here; the landlords, however, are, most of them, willing to find all the materials that a tenant feels disposed to use, which chiefly consist of draining tiles.

The drill is, in many parts, used for wheat, and generally for beans. Threshing machines are only employed on some of the largest farms.

The outbuildings are chiefly built of brick and tiles; the repairs are very commonly completed under the superintendence of the landlord, who charges the tenant with one-third of the expense.

YORKSHIRE.

THE air of this extensive county and its natural productions differ, of course, according to situation.

In the West Riding, the air is considered more salubrious than in the east or north. In those parts near the borders of Lancashire, the county is mountainous and barren ; but towards the banks of the Ouse the land is extremely fertile, and produces great crops of wheat.

Great numbers of horses and cattle are bred in the West Riding, the sale of which realizes considerable sums of money. Coals are in great abundance : there are also many quarries of very excellent freestone.

The curing of pork and hams is carried on here upon an extensive scale for the dealers in London. The chief manufactures are those of cloth ; at Leeds, Wakefield, Bradford, Halifax and Huddersfield ; and of hardware at Sheffield.

In the North Riding, the air is extremely sharp, but it is considered pure and healthy, though in an inferior degree to that of the west. Being mountainous, the soil is generally barren, but the vallies afford excellent pasture.

There are several lead mines in this part of the county. Where its eastern extremity borders upon the sea, all kinds of fish are in great abundance. The chief manufactures are those of cloth, stockings, and alum.

In the East Riding, on account of its situation near the Humber, the air is not so pure and salubrious as in other quarters.

The soil is in some places barren, but in others, where it is properly cultivated, it is tolerably productive. Great numbers of cattle of all kinds are fed here. Both wood for fuel and coals are extremely cheap. There are but few manufactures except that of cloth.

Yorkshire contains coal, lead, and iron mines, and different sorts of limestone are to be found in it. To give a general character either of its soil or its state is impossible within the limits of this work, on account of the great extent of the county. It, in fact, presents in some part or other every description of soil. It was always particularly celebrated for an excellent breed of horses, which is still kept up, the landlords allowing their tenants free access to their own horses, which greatly contributes to encourage the latter, and to keep up the breed; the cross, in general, is between a light cart mare, and a thorough bred horse. The county has likewise a breed of cattle peculiar to it, but not in any degree equal to that of their horses; nor is it generally approved of by the graziers. Great numbers of sheep are bred in Yorkshire, particularly on the wolds of the East and North Ridings, though they are seldom spoken of as belonging to the county. They are, in some respects, like the Leicestershire sheep, but smaller, and they differ in constitution. They have, however, the preference given them in several parts of England, and many of them are bought for the purpose of feeding in Hertfordshire and the adjoining counties.

PRACTICE OF TENANCY.

This practice differs in each riding, but there is one custom more general than others separately belonging to each of them.

In the West Riding, the usual time for entering upon a farm is old Candlemas, or new year's day ; at either period the incoming tenant takes possession of the whole of the land, but he does not occupy the house till old May-day.

The period for entering upon a farm in the North Riding is Lady-day, but the incomer has the privilege of going upon the land to plough at Candlemas : he does not take possession of the house till May-day.

In the East Riding, the time for entering is also Lady-day, before which period the incomer cannot enter upon the farm without the permission of the tenant in possession ; he does not occupy the house till May-day.

The general practice throughout the county is to let the farms only from year to year, and to receive the rents half-yearly.

The poor-rates, which are much the heaviest in the West Riding on account of the manufactories, are frequently collected there monthly, but in other parts generally quarterly or half-yearly. The highway-tax is half worked out and half paid. The great tithes are more generally compounded for than taken in kind : the small tithes are always paid by composition.

CUSTOMS BETWEEN LANDLORD AND TENANT, AND THE INCOMING AND OUTGOING TENANT.

The usual custom throughout the county between landlord and tenant is, that the latter is not to carry away hay or straw from the premises ; he is also to leave the farm with the same advantages attached to it which he found when he entered into possession ; but there is no general restriction as to the mode of cultivation,

excepting that a tenant is not allowed to break up pasture land.

In the North Riding, an outgoing tenant sows his wheat and has an offgoing crop, which he may either thresh himself or sell to his successor, or to any other person; but he is bound to use the straw upon the premises, having barn and yard room found him for that purpose until May-day twelvemonth after he quits the farm: and whether he threshes it himself, or sells the crop to any other person, the straw must, in either case, be consumed by his or some other individual's cattle upon the premises, and the dung left for the benefit of the incomer, without any further charge.

But although the outgoer has an outgoing crop of wheat, he is only allowed to sow one-third of the arable land; that proportion he may sow at whatever time and with whatever kind of grain he thinks proper. For all the ground that he sows, he pays what is called corn standage, which is the rent until harvest time. If he sows more than this proportion, the incomer claims the crop, without making any remuneration; and the practice is carried to such a nicety that two or three acres are frequently taken out of a large field to make up the quantity; but there being no restriction respecting cropping the land, the outgoer sows whichever part of the farm he thinks the best for himself. The incomer enters upon the farm at Candlemas, to plough for his spring crop and fallow, and takes possession of all the land at Lady-day, excepting that upon which the wheat crop stands. The outgoer has no other demand upon him than for the value of seed and labour for the young clover or artificial seeds upon the ground, it being at the option of the incomer either to purchase or not the wheat crop.

The customs in the upper part of the West Riding, between the incomer and outgoer, are much the same as in the North; but below Aberford they are quite different, and as the people there say, are good ones to come out with, but bad to enter upon.

The outgoer, in the last-mentioned quarter, sows the wheat crop which his successor is obliged to take, together with the grass seeds on the ground, and to pay for all the tillage and half-tillage on those crops, and also on the turnip crops, and for all the manure either in the yards or laid out upon the land, according to a valuation.

The incomer generally enters at old Candlemas, after which period the outgoer has nothing to do with the farm. The incomer has to pay for two and a half year's manure, and one and a half year's tillage. There is the manure in the yard when he enters, that laid out for the turnip or wheat crop, and half what was laid out on the turnip or wheat crop during the preceding year, which land is generally in seeds, and having had only one crop of corn from the manure, it is taxed with the value of half what was laid out upon it, on account of the next crop reaping the benefit of the remainder; the year and half's tillage is all the work performed on the turnip or wheat crops, during that year, and a half what was performed upon them in the year preceding; this half tillage is paid upon the seeds, or upon ground that has only produced one crop of corn after being manured and fallowed: besides these charges, the incomer has, likewise, to pay for all seed and labour.

In the East Riding, the outgoer sows the wheat crop, and, likewise, the spring corn, until Lady-day, and it sometimes happens that, with the assistance of his neighbours, he gets the whole of the latter into the ground by

that time ; he has the privilege of taking that as an off-going crop, together with the wheat, paying no rent after Lady-day ; he is bound, however to thresh the crops upon the premises, and to leave the manure for his successor. An incomer, in this riding, has nothing to pay for excepting the seeds upon the ground ; but not being allowed the privilege of going upon the land to plough for the spring crop, he is not unfrequently prevented for eighteen months from having any corn.

MODE OF FARMING, IMPLEMENTS, &c.

Agriculture is, in general, much neglected in Yorkshire, but the farming in the West Riding is much better managed than in any other part, a more regular system and rotation being adopted ; and the principal markets being on that side of the county, the inhabitants derive more advantage from them, having thus, at the same time, a stronger incentive to improvement, than those who live at a greater distance.

The rotation, in the West Riding, is, in general, regularly—first, turnips, or fallow ; second, barley ; third, seeds ; fourth, wheat. The bone manure is much used, but not to so great an extent as the rape dust ; the latter being found to answer a better purpose, particularly for wheat in cold land, which is as often sown by the hand broad cast as it is by the drill. This manure is usually bought, in this part of the county, by the quarter of eight bushels ; the price formerly paid was 8s. 6d. per quarter, but in consequence of the limited demand for oil, and the great call for the dust, it now costs from 18s. to 20s. per quarter : three quarters per acre is the quantity usually laid upon the land. The bone manure has, during the last two or three years, been proved, in this

quarter, to be preferable to any other for turnips, that crop, from the dryness of the seasons, having generally turned out indifferently, but the bone-manured turnips have been found to be the best.

In those parts of the West Riding where the land is not calculated for turnips, a great quantity of beans and peas are sown; and it is becoming a general practice with regard to that kind of land, to sow more of them, and lessen the quantity of oats.

Lime is very frequently used both on pasture and arable land; it is generally burnt in the field where it is intended to be used, there being an abundance of limestone and coals nearly on the spot: the former, indeed, is the principal part of the strata of the wolds in the West Riding.

The pastures in this quarter are extremely rich, particularly at Craven, where the hills, although not affording a great length of pasture, prepare, owing to the quality of the herbage, many beasts and sheep for the butcher, a circumstance very unusual, with reference to hills.

A large proportion of the soil in the North and East Ridings bears a very indifferent appearance, chiefly owing to bad management, and an entire neglect of the first and best principle of agriculture, that of laying the land dry.

The practice of draining is, in general, neglected throughout the county, but more particularly in the two last-named ridings, where hundreds of acres of good land are entirely destroyed by water. There is one spot especially, in the neighbourhood of Thirsk, where the land is naturally good, but is utterly spoiled by bad management.

In the North Riding, paring and burning for the cultivation of turnips, is very much practised, but no attention is paid as to the succession of two white crops. The rotation is—first, turnips; second, wheat, or barley; third, oats, or, very frequently, a second crop of wheat; fourth, seeds, which are generally fed, and then the system of paring and burning is resorted to again.

The manure chiefly used in the North Riding, for all kinds of grain, consists of lime and dung; no other, indeed, is employed, with the exception of the ashes made from burning the surface of the land. The lime is burnt in the wolds, where there is a variety of stone, such as bluestone, limestone of every description, and, likewise, honeycomb-stone, the whole of which are burnt into lime.

In the East Riding, no system whatever is acted upon excepting in the wolds, which contain a substratum of chalk, and produce much better crops than the lowlands.

Bone manure is sometimes used in this quarter, and chalk is also laid out upon the land, in the same way as in Lincolnshire, but the soil is of a very inferior quality.

The rotation, in the wolds, is—first, turnips; second, barley; third, seeds; fourth, wheat. In other parts of this riding there is none, nor is there scarcely any operation performed as it should be. The fields are remarkably small, and, in general, surrounded by ash timber, which, in some parts of Yorkshire, grows tolerably kindly, and is the principal sort that the county produces; but, with the exception of certain dry spots, if it stands for years to come, it will be of no more value than it is at the present time, it being, generally, scrubby and dead topped. If the greater part of it was cut down, and the money it produces laid out in draining the land, a much greater advantage would accrue both to landlord

and tenant, than by allowing it to stand for a longer period.

Threshing machines are used on large farms, but not generally throughout the county. The drill is employed in almost every part where the soil will admit.

The outbuildings in the North and West Ridings are chiefly constructed of stone and pantiles; in the East, generally of brick and pantiles. The repairs are most commonly made at the expense of the landlord.

APPENDIX.

No. I.



HAVING promised in the Introduction to state in an Appendix what, in the judgment of the Authors, is the most advisable practice of tenancy, and the various customs now in use having been detailed in the counties and districts in which they respectively prevail, it remains to fulfil the pledge thus given, in as condensed a shape as the subject will permit.

Undoubtedly, as a general proposition, the most desirable practice of tenancy is, that through which all unpleasantness or misunderstanding between the landlord and tenant, or the incoming and outgoing tenants, is avoided; each party, to a certain extent, being at liberty to make arrangements, and exert themselves, with a view respectively to their own interest; and by means of which, also, an incoming tenant may enter a farm with the full benefit of all his capital, so that he may employ it to the best advantage; it being likewise essentially necessary that the latter should enter into possession at such a period of the year that he may be enabled to sow his crops at a proper season.

No business requires in a greater degree the free use of the capital appropriated to it than that of farming, and especially at the outset, when it is most essential that the farmer should possess the means of taking advantage of any bargain that may offer, as, indeed, in every business entered into for the purpose of living by it, the free

use of capital at such a period is indispensable. The evils, therefore, which it is wished to remove, and which it has been seen are, at this moment, in many counties very prevalent, are those customs at entry, the effect of which is to deprive a farmer of nearly the whole or of the greater part of his capital, and thus frequently to cause his ruin the first year of his commencing business; and those, which, through the not allowing an incoming tenant the requisite privileges, prevent him from sowing his corn in due season.

When a person entering upon a farm is thus deprived of his capital, through being compelled, by custom, to pay a heavy valuation, he, of course, expects to receive, in a similar proportion, when he quits, from his successor; and in this way the evil is perpetuated. But were the landlord, as recommended in the Introduction, to alter the system, in order to give the new tenant a free entry, and the free use of his capital; such a course would, most assuredly, as there observed, combined with the bestowing upon the new occupier a sufficient interest in the soil, by means of a lease, ultimately, and in truth speedily, tend most essentially to the advantage of the landholder, as well as of his tenants. No farmer, of course, enters into business with the view of being bereft of his capital; but, on the contrary, with the hope of obtaining a comfortable subsistence for his family and himself, and of bettering his situation; and it is too obvious to be for a moment doubted, that it is much more easy for him to do so by having money at his command to enable him to take advantage of the markets, than by being deprived of his capital, and having only times and seasons to trust to. In the latter case, indeed, what little capital he has left to commence with, is, in general, lost; as being unable,

through the want of means, either to make improvements, or to keep the land so stocked, or in such a condition, as would secure him some return, he cannot, when he quits, obtain an amount of valuation adequate to his outlay at entry; and thus a portion of his capital is literally sacrificed, whilst the land, instead of being improved, is deteriorated. It is, therefore, equally for the advantage of both landlord and tenant that this system of taking capital from the latter should not be continued; and also that the incoming and outgoing tenants should have respectively an equipoised interest, without being under any necessity of interfering with each other when the change of tenancy takes place.

Were the following practice generally adopted, it is presumed that a beneficial alteration might be effected.

It may be premised, that there is but one method by means of which a landed proprietor can have his land in proper condition; namely, by letting it subject to certain restrictions, which require a regular course of husbandry to be strictly pursued.

Restrictions are equally as favorable to the tenant as to the landlord, when imposed with a due consideration of their respective interests; and the more the true nature of those interests is studied at the outset, the greater the mutual benefit that is likely to be derived. On the other hand, where the advantage is given to the tenant at the expiration of his term, he alone is benefited, but not nearly in that proportion that he might have been, had his interest, conjointly with that of the landlord, been properly considered at the commencement of that term.

The various times for entering upon farms, and the different customs attendant, as it were, upon each of them, have been seen in the respective counties in which

they are in use, or prevail, the generality of them being noticed. It will also have been seen, that with regard to many of them, the interest of the incoming tenant is greatly neglected or sacrificed. What is here wished for is a mutual advantage, which can only be obtained by requiring a regular course of husbandry, and allowing an incoming tenant the free use of his capital to go on with it; but a course of husbandry beneficial to both parties cannot be adopted, unless a proportion of the land is annually sown with clover, or other grass seeds, the phrase "green crop" including so many kinds, that the land is, in consequence of its being frequently used in a way never intended, run out of condition, and much impoverished.

The practice of tenancy about to be proposed would, it is conceived, fairly combine the interests of the landlord and tenant, and be found equally beneficial for the taking as well as the letting of a farm; looking, in the first place, to the lease, and its suggested conditions, for the advantage of the landlord; and, in the next, to the arrangements between the incoming and outgoing tenants, for the benefit of the tenant.

In the first place, let it be supposed that A lets a farm to B for the term of fourteen or twenty-one years, commencing at Lady-day, but granting the privilege of entering upon the land at Candlemas, to begin ploughing for the spring crop and fallows, and freeing the seeds and pasture of cattle at the same period; and also containing these conditions, namely—that all the hay and straw is to be used upon the premises, and the dung to be left for the benefit of the land during, and at the expiration of, the term; that made in the course of the last half year being left in the yards, that the incoming tenant may

apply it wherever he thinks it will be most beneficial to himself; that B, when he quits, is to leave the same advantages that he received when he entered; that the farm is to be worked on the four-field system, viz., a fourth for wheat, the same proportion for seeds, one-fourth for turnips or fallow, and a fourth for spring corn; or where the soil is good corn land, a third for wheat, the same proportion for seeds and turnips, or fallow, equally divided, and one-third for spring corn, including a quantity of beans, peas, or tares, sufficient together with the seeds, to take up a third of the land; that two white crops should never be taken successively, nor more than two white crops for a fallow, and the land to be once dressed; and that all the meadow ground cut for hay should be dressed every three years.

With regard to the quantity of draining, hedging, and ditching, restrictions are, undoubtedly, highly necessary, but their nature and extent must, of course, entirely depend upon the situation and quality of the land. It should, therefore, be decided upon at the time of entry, how much ought to be done annually, and at whose expense, in order that stipulations to that effect may be inserted in the lease: the same may be said with reference to the repairs of the buildings.

These advantages to the landlord require no explanation, as the tenant being bound to sow a certain proportion of the farm every year with seeds, to have another proportion with turnips or fallow, and it being stipulated that the corn crops are not to exceed a specified number of acres, the land cannot easily get out of condition.

In order, in the next place, to show the advantages which it is presumed might be derived from the arrangements here suggested between the outgoing and incoming

tenants, let it be supposed that B gives up the farm at Lady-day, and that C takes it under the same stipulations as his predecessor.

C enters at Candlemas to commence ploughing for and sowing the spring crop, and working the fallows, and takes possession of the seeds and pasture land at the same time, together with a part of the house and stable-room for his horses, but the outbuildings and the remaining portion of the house are retained by B until May-day following, for the purpose of making use of the hay and straw, and completing the threshing then on hand; and for B.'s portion of the wheat crop which he leaves in the ground, sufficient barn-room is provided at harvest time, which he threshes on the premises, leaving the straw for his successor, free of expense.

C pays to B the value of seed and labour for the clover, or other grass seeds upon the ground, and claims a portion of the wheat crop, he paying rent and taxes from the time of his entering until Michaelmas, for the ground it grew upon; and his portion being one-third of the crop if the land was fallowed for wheat, and half of it if sown after any other crop; he also has the benefit of all the dung left upon the premises, without paying for it any pecuniary consideration, and he finds remaining in the yards all the dung made during the last half year, as stipulated in the lease.

C entering at Candlemas, has time to plough his land for the Lent corn, and sow it in proper season, from which he obtains a return in six months; and by his taking possession of the seeds and pasture at the same time, the herbage is prevented from being diminished or injured by late feeding; and B being restricted from sowing more than a stated proportion of the arable land

with wheat, C finds as many acres for a crop of Lent corn, and the farm in as regular a course of husbandry as if having held it for several years; but if the wheat season does exceed the stated proportion, C claims the quantity sown over and above the stipulation, without making any kind of remuneration for the crop; whereas this restriction being omitted, a leaving tenant sows all the land he possibly can for his last wheat crop, which not only diminishes the quantity of land, properly speaking, intended for his successor's spring crop, but prevents him from having the farm in a regular course for several years, besides greatly impoverishing the land. It besides affords him the opportunity of rolling, sweeping, repairing the fences or performing any other requisite labour which the pastures may require; whilst a tenant who is not allowed the privilege of entry before Lady-day, although the custom of the county may give him the right of sowing and ploughing for the spring crop, is put to great inconvenience and cannot possibly have his land ploughed and sown, and his other necessary work done in any reasonable time, arising from the outgoing tenant having the option of allowing his successor to enter before Lady-day or not; though the former cannot make use of the land, he being prevented by the same custom from sowing the spring crop,—and thus he is in possession of a privilege which cannot benefit himself, but is highly injurious to the incomer; this is grievously felt in many counties; and where the outgoer is allowed to sow the spring crop before he gives up possession at Lady-day, the case is still worse for the incomer, the latter being thus prevented from having any corn at all for eighteen months.

C is charged for nothing but the clover or grass seeds upon the ground, as in consequence of paying rent and taxes for six months on the wheat crop, he claims a por-

tion of it, and B having an interest in the last crop as well as in the preceding ones during the term of the lease, is of course induced to farm the land for that, equally as well as for the others; for although he leaves all the dung for the benefit of C, yet he is not a loser, he having had the same advantages when he himself entered: the reason for its being necessary that the dung made during the last half year should be left in the yards, is, that B having an interest in the last crop, he, if he was not tied down to leave the dung in the yards, would top dress the green wheat in the winter with it, and thus deprive C of manure which is essentially requisite for his turnip or wheat crops the ensuing year; such a practice being very prevalent where this restriction is not enforced.

C, likewise, has no hay or straw to take at entry, B being bound to feed and use it on the premises by May-day, nor any fallows to pay for, he being allowed, under the proposed arrangement, to enter in sufficient time to make his own.

The period of entry in this suggested practice is productive of very great advantages; the crop being sown in good time, and there being a quicker return, than by means of entering at any other period. A Michaelmas entry affords no return for twelve months; a still longer delay ensues from one at May-day or Midsummer; and from a Lady-day entry, where the outgoer has the option of sowing the spring crop, a delay of no less than a year and a half; but with the privilege of entering at Candlemas, the greatest advantages, as already stated, are derived from a Lady-day entry, the delay being only six months, it allowing the incoming tenant the free use of his capital, preventing any unpleasantness between him and the outgoer, they having no favors to ask of, nor being in any way under obligation to each other, and giving them a

joint interest, the land is thus kept in good condition, the incomer being enabled and encouraged to make profitable improvements.

If such a practice were established, a farmer would have advantages at the outset, and would feel satisfied in having obtained a regular course of crops, on quitting, and leaving the land intended to be ploughed for fallows by his successor, and likewise that for the spring crop—a privilege which every incoming tenant ought to be allowed, it being essential to his interest, that he should make the requisite preparations for them himself, as it puts aside every circumstance which is likely to give rise to imposition. Where an outgoing tenant is allowed to make the fallows, and is paid for them according to valuation by the incomer, the latter is not only deprived of his capital, and prevented from making improvements, but he is frequently greatly dissatisfied, because he experiences, from the effects of such a practice, a permanent and irremediable injury.

No. II.

THE SMUT IN WHEAT.

VARIOUS opinions have been formed, and many have been published, as to the causes of the frequent attacks of this very injurious malady upon the crops of wheat.

It is considered by some to arise from a blight in the air, by many to be occasioned in consequence of the grain not being subjected to a proper process, by means of lime brine and other ingredients, but which others believe to be wholly unnecessary. The real cause of smut, however,

may be traced both to the situation of the soil and the mode of its cultivation, as well as to the seed not undergoing some kind of process, which is, doubtless, highly requisite.

The subject may, perhaps, be placed in a clearer point of view by means of the following questions and answers than by adopting any other mode.

Q. Is smut most frequently found in an open or inclosed district ?

A. Certainly inclosed.

Q. In what part of a field is smut generally found to be most abundant ?

A. Invariably under the hedges, or on the headlands, and this, first, because the sun and air have not the same power under the hedges that they have in the more open parts of the field ; and, secondly, because the headlands are scarcely ever subjected to the same degree of careful tillage which is bestowed on the rest of the field, nor have the sun and air the same power to purify them.

Q. What descriptions of soil or conditions of land are most liable to smut ?

A. Old lays, foul bean-stubbles, and potatoe-ground sown from a fresh furrow, and this because they contain a proportion of injurious matter, which not being purified or eradicated by the sun and air, acts upon the grain in a manner similar to the operation of slow poison upon the human body, and thus the grain, when it is, as it were, in its milky state, or just emerging from that condition, instead of receiving proper nutriment from the land to bring it to maturity, meets with a total check, and is diseased instead of becoming healthy and nutritious, through the nauseous qualities of an impure soil.

Q. What descriptions of soil or conditions of land are most free from smut ?

A. Clean fallows, and this for reasons which it is unnecessary to give at length, because they are merely the direct contrary of those assigned for its production.

To confirm the opinions here urged, it is only requisite to refer to the counties of Derby and Carmarthen, where smut is more prevalent than in any other part of the United Kingdom. In the former, indeed, it sometimes prevails to such an extent as to render the corn useless for the purposes of human sustenance; and why? Because in Derbyshire there are but comparatively few acres allowed to be cultivated, and these are continually cropped, and never cleaned. The smut in Carmarthen-shire is to be attributed to the slovenly habits of those employed in farming, who persist in sowing old lays that have been down seven or eight years, after a fresh furrow, which are full of filth, and totally unfit for the reception of the grain.

Were smut to originate from blight, there would be a general failure in the crop wherever the blight crossed, but that is well known not to be the case; the defect is found to be confined either to partial spots, or to here and there an ear, an injury which must, doubtless, arise from the roots extending themselves into stale and unpurified earth.

It is not meant to be asserted that the soil of the whole of a field is of this poisonous or deleterious nature, but all land is more or less thus imbued; and when, from a wet season, or through any other occurrence, the ground has not been properly worked, and still more when land has not been worked at all, compared with that which has been skilfully operated upon, and purified by the sun and air, the effects then become visible, and frequently highly injurious. The grain, therefore, requires

the aid of some ingredient to protect it from this disease ; and although in some situations or conditions of soil, the preparation may not be required to be so strong as in others, yet, generally speaking, the strongest is the safest, especially as it will no more injure the crop growing any where than the most gentle preparation.

Sow smutty seed upon any land, and the certain consequence will be to reap smutty corn ; but if clean seed properly prepared is sown upon clean ground, there is very little fear of reaping any but clean grain. It frequently happens, however, that much mischief arises from not devoting sufficient time to the making the preparation.

The following RECEIPT for preventing SMUT has been handed down from grandfather to grandson, and the preparation has been repeatedly used with invariable success. It is, therefore, with the greatest confidence in the benefit to be derived from it, that the mode of making it is submitted to the public.

For every sixty acres of wheat, take three bundles of wormwood, each containing as much in quantity as a house-broom, and let them soak in uric acid for two or three months previous to the time of sowing, adding every day to the uric acid, but letting the wormwood soak all the time in the tub ; by the commencement of sowing, the strength will be chiefly extracted, but about three or four days previous, put into the tub a quantity of blue vitriol, in the proportion of one ounce for every bushel of wheat intended to be sown, and stir the mixture well every time it is used.

It is necessary to be very particular in wetting the grain with this liquid, so that it may be thoroughly imbued with it ; put down four bushels at first, and when

that is well wetted, put down four bushels more, and so on, till the whole task is finished ; then, having thrown the whole quantity together, let it remain for a quarter of an hour, and then dry it with lime, and if the seed is clean, and the land tolerably cultivated, there need not be the slightest apprehension of a smutty crop.

This preparation (made as it is at a very trifling, or rather at no expense, worth naming, as the uric acid may be produced in amply sufficient quantity in every house) will be found highly beneficial to the farmer ; and had it been generally known, there is no doubt that, in the course of several preceding years, many crops might have been saved.

Oats and barley are equally liable with wheat to smut, and for them also, this preparation, either without or with the vitriol, will be found highly desirable and beneficial.

With regard to oats, smut is, perhaps, not of so much consequence, though, sometimes, great loss is occasioned by it ; but of late years, in consequence of a succession of mild winters and wet springs, the slugs and grubs have, in many quarters, so much increased, that the destruction caused by these insects has become a matter of serious importance, the crops, in some districts, having been entirely destroyed. This evil may be avoided, and either oats or barley, or both, preserved, by using the above preparation ; or for this purpose, the wormwood may be soaked in any kind of brine*, in the same way as in uric acid, for wheat, with the additional application also of lime ; for peas and beans, likewise, use hot

* Double the quantity being required for oats or barley, the quantity sown per acre being double.

lime ; if they are drilled, or sown, spread the lime first, but if dibbled, spread the lime directly afterwards, and harrow it in.

This last mentioned practice is, in some places, regularly followed, after wet or dry seasons ; but after a wet season, any farmer will be well paid for his trouble, by finding it a certain remedy for the evil which he is desirous of eradicating.

Oats and barley are generally destroyed at the root by the slugs or worms, but the beans and peas by the grubs eating the plant on the surface ; the former, therefore, are protected, by being steeped in a preparation, which, to the insects liable to destroy them, is nauseous, and which, in consequence, they avoid coming in contact with ; and the beans and peas are saved from the grubs, by means of the lime, which repudiates them from the surface of the soil.

THE END.

The Steam Coulters Plough.



W. W. W. W. W. W.

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